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ABSTRACT

Two of America's most serious problems--crime and illiteracy--converge in our prisons. The majority of prisoners have serious educational deficits. Although prison educational programs exist, they are often ineffective because of poor program development, lack of administrative support, or small numbers of prisoners served. One innovation in prison education is the Free Venture program, which may succeed in revitalizing prison industries and in turning prisoner idleness into productivity. Elements of the Free Venture model include the following: (1) workers should be exposed to a realistic work environment; (2) prisoners should partially reimburse the state for custody and welfare costs as well as make restitution payments to victims; (3) prisoners should gradually be prepared for release into the community; (4) there should be fixed responsibilities with financial incentives and penalties for job placement of prisoners upon release into the community; (5) prison industries should receive financial incentives for successfully reintegrating offenders into the community; and (6) prison industries should be self-supporting profit-making business operations. Seven states have undertaken the Free Venture plan with varying records of success and disappointment. Where the program has succeeded, its benefits are seen as fundamental changes in the nature of the prison community. (Besides an examination of the issues concerning prison education and an examination of some models of improved correctional education, this monograph contains an annotated bibliography on correctional education, keys to federal funding for education of adult offenders, and models of assessment instruments and school district legislation.) (KC)

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Adult Offender Education Programs

by
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

PREFACE v

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION 1

- The Need 4
- The Obstacles 5
- Five Axioms 11

CHAPTER II: ACADEMIC EDUCATION: CONCEPTS AND PROGRAMS 15

- The Adult Learner 15
- The Idea of Competency 18
- The Adult Performance Level Model 19
- Assessment and Diagnosis 24
- Adult Basic Education 27
- The Laubach Method 30
- Literacy and Project READ 31
- Title I (Elementary and Secondary Education Act) Programs in California 32
- Secondary Education 33
- Motivation as an Obstacle to Effective Secondary Education in Prison 34
- The General Educational Development Examination 35
- Postsecondary Education 38
- The New Educational Technology: Instruction Television (ITV) 41
- The New Technology: Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) 43
- The Administrator and Prison Education 48

CHAPTER III: DELIVERING EDUCATION TO THE PRISONER 53

- A System to Support Practice 53
- The Organizational Superstructure 54
- The Windham School District 57
- The Assessment of Educational Needs 61
- Incentives 63
- Assignment to Programs 64
- The Role of the Educational Supervisor 65
- The Evaluation of Prison Education 68

CHAPTER IV: EDUCATION IN THE WORKING PRISON 77

- The Working Prison 78
- The Prison of Opportunity 81

Page

APPENDIX A: SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS 89

APPENDIX B: REPRESENTATIVE ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS USED IN CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION 101

APPENDIX C: CURRICULAR MATERIALS IN CALIFORNIA TITLE I PROGRAMS 105

APPENDIX D: LEGISLATION ESTABLISHING WINDHAM CORRECTIONAL SCHOOL DISTRICT 111

APPENDIX E: FEDERAL BUREAU OF PRISONS, INMATE EDUCATION SURVEY 115

APPENDIX F: MINNESOTA MUTUAL AGREEMENT PROGRAM REPORT, WITH SAMPLES 121

APPENDIX G: SELECTED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY: ACADEMIC EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS 127

PREFACE

Two of America's most serious problems--crime and illiteracy--converge in our prisons. To a steadily increasing extent, the offenders held in incarceration are violent, unstable men and women whose prospects are not improved by months and years spent in idleness or near idleness. Prison populations are drawn more than ever from the ranks of unskilled criminals, who are so numerous that they leave little room to spare for the forgers, the confidence men and other predators who, though often confirmed in their criminal ways, at least present no danger to the life and limb of others. At a time when the nation's employers have diminishing uses for unskilled labor, it is not surprising that many of the chronically unemployed youth of the cities turn to unskilled crime. Robbery, assault and rape require little skill and can be carried out by persons who have no occupational competence.

The majority of these offenders share a disabling characteristic: a serious educational deficit. To assign illiteracy as the cause of violent crime would be to overlook many other and more socially significant causes: racism, unemployment, the tedium of the work ethic as experienced by the poor and unskilled, the lack of opportunity to improve one's circumstances, and the sense of relative deprivation when the poor compare circumstances with the rich. There is little or nothing that the prison can contribute to the alleviation of these evils and distresses, but it can offer educational opportunities. It has been a topic of public concern that the prison is not fully capitalizing on its opportunities to intervene effectively in one of the very few aspects of the prisoner's life where intervention can make a difference. A recent survey by the General Accounting Office laid heavy stress on the poor management of education and training programs in state prisons, urging that vigorous steps be taken to improve programs and curricula in prison schools.[1] A comprehensive evaluation of correctional education by the Lehigh University School of Education outlined the serious administrative issues that must be addressed if correctional education is to achieve its potential.[2] In her many years of research and demonstration on the problems of correctional education and their solution, Ryan has documented shortcomings and proposed remedies in prodigious detail.[3]

The way to better prison education has been shown, the gains--both short and long range--are understood, and the means are available in impressive amounts.[4] Why, then, does correctional education still fall so far short of its objectives? We shall deal in this monograph with most of the reasons, but one of the most spurious deserves attention here. As a result of incautious interpretations of the work of Lipton, Martinson and Wilks, the notion has gained credence that in the rehabilitation of offenders, "nothing works."[5] A close examination of the work of Lipton et al. reveals no systematic studies of educational programs. This question is still open. No one knows what value educational and vocational training programs have for offenders after their release from confinement because no one has tried to find out.[6] It is not unreasonable to suppose that for some they make a crucial difference, for some a little difference can be discerned, and for others they make no difference at all as to their careers after release. It is not beyond the powers of evaluative research to settle these matters by studies that will enable educators to deploy their resources to the best possible effect.

The justification of correctional education does not need to await the completion of serious evaluation, a distant prospect at best. As we shall stress throughout this monograph, a prison administrator has two basic choices to make about the nature of incarceration in his facility. He may choose to tolerate a predominately idle prison, in which a lucky few work in the kitchen and the tag plant, while the bulk of the population stews in destructive inactivity. This choice is perilous, as deadly riots have repeatedly shown. It is also destructive to the individual prisoner who, after years of socialization to enforced idleness, has acquired by the time of his release habits and attitudes that make him virtually unemployable.[7]

The second choice requires a great deal of the administrator, but its feasibility is assured. Again and again we found in the conduct of this study correctional facilities that have programmed idleness out of the normal day of the prisoner. Always it is some combination of education and work that must accomplish this difficult but desirable end. There are no other possibilities; time has to be filled; if it is not filled constructively it is certain that it will be put to destructive uses. The constructive filling of time calls for effective education. The mere filling of slots and classrooms is self-defeating.

Expectations must be moderate at best; if most prisoners are in school or at work a great deal will have been achieved, but it won't be complete harmony. A prison staff is confronted with men and women whose common bond is failure at everything they have tried in conventional life and at most of the actions they have taken in unconventional life. They will continue to fail in considerable numbers, but their occasional modest successes are the evidence of what can be done. There will be no utopian incarceration; prisons will always be prone to disorders. The risks are lessened, however, in a prison in which the men and women who are confined are allowed to commit themselves to constructive purposes and to act on them.

This monograph was commissioned by the National Institute of Justice in the belief that attention should be focused on the administrative support that correctional education requires for full effectiveness. It is not intended for correctional educators, although we hope that some will read it over the shoulders of their administrative colleagues. We do not presume to teach teachers how to teach, but we have observed and collected information on the operation of prison education programs in many states. We have reflected on what we have seen, and related our observations to the vast literature of correctional education and the even more voluminous literature of adult education.

From this effort there emerges a report that is intended

- to present practical models for academic education in prisons;
- to specify the organizational administrative and fiscal support requirements;
- to present programs for prison education that will take full advantage of the professional capabilities of the teaching profession, and at the same time compensate to the greatest extent possible for the limits within which prison education must work.

We have pursued these objectives by two different routes. First, we have described the prevailing system and its assumptions. We have tried to specify the administrative support needed to bring it to the maximum possible level of effectiveness. In most states, much more could be done than is being done. The conventional model of prison education, as we shall describe it, is impressive where there is a will to use it well. It is a pathetic window-dressing that should deceive no one in states where indolent leadership and penurious resources allow a few prisoners the opportunity to fill a few hours with meaningless instruction. We have shown how good use can be made of the conventional model of correctional education. To be sure that the reader knows where all the avenues of support are to be found, we have included in Appendix A a catalog of the numerous Federal funding sources that can be used to augment the educational enterprise. Not many programs come close to taking full advantage of all the available means of improvement. It is not unfair to say that too many are unaware of what is available to supplement local resources.

The second thrust of this monograph toward its objectives will be found in our last chapter. Innovation stirs feebly in contemporary penology, but one exception to the present stagnation of ideas is the Free Venture program, which may succeed in revitalizing prison industries. Can the imagination and resources be found whereby a hopeful combination of education and industry presents the prisoner with opportunities to accustom himself to the values and satisfactions of the free society to which he will eventually return? At the same time, such a combination of education and industry could transform the present prison of oppressiveness, idleness and predation into an institution in which hope is no longer a stranger.

Most of this publication is devoted to the problems of academic education. Time and space were insufficient for a review in depth of the troublesome issues in vocational education, and these matters were excluded from our charge from the outset. Some of these issues are inextricably associated with the management of academic education, and we have discussed them when this is the case. But it needs to be said that difficult questions of cost effectiveness, eligibility for enrollment, relevance to occupational requirements, and the mobilization of industrial and union support arise and require intensive study before they can be resolved in a useful program model. That we have not addressed them here should not be construed as an expression of opinion that they are not of urgent importance to the improvement of prison conditions.

* * *

So many people have contributed to the preparation of this monograph that an attempt to list them all risks the loading of this preface with an unwieldy recital of names. We must be content with an accounting of the institutions and agencies whose personnel allowed us to interrupt their work for answers to our inquiries. Our distinguished Advisory Committee, listed at the front of this monograph met with us and afforded invaluable assistance in planning the study and responding to our requests for further critiques. Any errors of understanding or interpretation are, of course, our own responsibility.

Special thanks must be accorded to Raymond Bell, of the Lehigh University School of Education, for allowing us the free run of the files of the National Correctional Education Evaluation Project. The information stored in those archives saved us--and many potential respondents--many hours of telephone interviews, and provided guidance to programs deserving our particular attention as examples of what could be done.

We must also give special acknowledgment to the Free Venture Project staff of the Institute of Criminal Justice, who informed us at length and with courteous patience concerning the status of the project and their future plans. Whether correctional education and correctional industry can be welded together remains to be seen; our cooperation with them is at least an indication of a prospect that the contest between these vital elements of prison programming can be brought to an end, to be followed by a more hopeful organiztion of services.

In addition to the help received from these sources, from correspondence with authorities and observers of prison education, we have conducted site visits at numerous locations. We resist the temptation to list the scores of people who dropped what they were doing to answer questions, to show us around, to arrange for us to interview prisoner-students, and some non-students, and later to answer by telephone or mail the questions that we forgot to ask when we were on the spot. The least we can do is to list the institutions and agencies that put up with our visitations:

Federal Metropolitan Correctional Center, New York City
Federal Correctional Institution, Milan, Michigan
Vienna Correctional Facility, Illinois Department of Corrections
New Mexico State Penitentiary, Santa Fe
Minnesota State Prison-Stillwater
Ohio Department of Corrections
North Carolina Department of Corrections
Polk Youth Center, Raleigh, North Carolina
Texas Department of Corrections
Windham School District, Texas Department of Corrections
California Department of Corrections
California Youth Authority

To the patient administrative and professional staffs and to the inmates of these facilities we tender our appreciation, hoping that we have not misrepresented them gravely. That so much that is admirable has been done in these facilities attests to the general improvement of prison education that is possible throughout the nation.

The tolerant understanding we have received from our Program Monitor, Frank Shults of the National Institute of Justice, has been all that we could have hoped for and more than we had a right to expect. Our appreciation must also go to Joan Mullen and Deborah Carrow of Abt Associates for administrative assistance when and as it was needed.

Finally, Ernest Reimer, the senior research associate on this project, made many helpful criticisms as well as perceptive and thorough site visits. Joann Cavros, our research assistant, is responsible for the Catalog of Federal Funding and the Annotated Bibliography, Appendices A and G, which constitute important resources in this publication. Rose Kor, our project secretary, cheerfully typed and retyped manuscripts, saw to it that travel went smoothly, and that a rapidly accumulating file remained continuously accessible.

A project such as this can be a long grind with the distant end nowhere in sight. That so many busy, interested and friendly people assisted in making its completion possible leaves us with a perspective of hope about two of the country's most unfairly maligned professional communities--our teachers and our correctional officials. They deserve well of the country and, given better understanding, can do much more than they have been allowed to do. We hope that this monograph will be a modest contribution toward that increase of understanding.

FOOTNOTES

1. Comptroller General of the United States, Report to the Congress of the United States. Correctional Institutions Can Do More to Improve the Employability of Offenders (Washington, D. C.: General Accounting Office, February 6, 1979).

2. National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, Correctional Education Programs for Inmates. National Evaluation Program, Phase I, by Raymond Bell et al. (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, June 1979).

3. T. A. Ryan et al., Model of Adult Basic Education in Corrections (Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975). See also other publications by Dr. Ryan and her associates listed in the bibliography.

4. See Appendix A.

5. Douglas Lipton, Robert Martinson, and Judith Wilks, The Effectiveness of Correctional Treatment (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1975).

6. Ibid., p. 189. Only eight studies were reported, none of them of satisfactory design.

7. In the interest of fluency, we shall take advantage of the preponderance of the male sex in the prison population to limit pronoun gender. This departure from the current practice of use of dual pronouns must not be taken to imply indifference to the relatively small minority of females in the prison population.

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Look at the organization chart of almost any American prison and you will find a box designated for Education. Sometimes it will be trailed by smaller boxes for Academic Education, Vocational Education, and Social Education. Even smaller boxes may be found for subcategories of the educational effort to which the institution may be committed. The place of education on these charts explicitly acknowledges the obligation of corrections to offer opportunities to the prisoner to improve himself--whether or not he wishes to take advantage of the chance to redirect his life.

That obligation has been given lip service, at least, ever since the beginning of the modern prison. Jeremy Bentham, the eighteenth century father of the rehabilitative ideal, saw the "diffusion of instruction" as one of the principal benefits to be anticipated from the prison, and there has never been a disavowal of his prescription. From the very first, American penal reformers were agreed that schools should be opened in our prisons. As far back as 1801, illiterate convicts were being instructed by their better educated fellow-prisoners in the New York prisons. It was not a movement of great momentum. Most wardens in American prisons before the Civil War were more interested in fostering the productivity of prison industries, hoping to make the prison self-sufficient and sometimes succeeding. Education took second place to hard labor, and sometimes that was no place at all. That was to be expected; education was a privilege in most parts of the country, and the right of the prisonor to personal benefits not available to law-abiding citizens would have been regarded as absurd by the practical men who were in charge of the criminal justice system. The gap between penal reformers and "practical" prison officials has yawned throughout the history of American corrections.

Prison education became a commitment when the newly organized National Prison Association proclaimed its Declaration of Principles at its first meeting in 1870. This famous document contained within its 37 specifications of the ideal prison system the following language:

> "Education is a vital force in the reformation of fallen men and women. Its tendency is to quicken the intellect, inspire self-respect, excite the highest aims, and afford a healthful substitute for low and vicious amusements. Recreation is considered to be an essential part of education. It

> has come to be recognized that recreation is an indispensable factor of normal human life. This principle is now heartily endorsed by prison administrators. Education in the broadest sense is, therefore, a matter of primary importance in the prison."[1]

This principle was reaffirmed by the American Prison Association in 1930, and the quotation above is taken from the Proceedings for that year. The last four sentences are expressed in the bureaucratic language of the twentieth century, but they expand--at least in aspiration--on the original precept.

It has been a difficult aspiration to achieve. Teachers willing and prepared to make a career of education behind the walls have not always been easy to find--although, we are told, the plentiful supply of recent graduates of schools of education has markedly increased their availability. Classrooms have had to be improvised in the older prisons. Even in new construction the facilities often fall short of the needs of adult education. Textbooks and teaching materials have been parsimoniously allocated, and sometimes have been imported from children's schools. In spite of official commitments and well-established principles, administrators have not often been able to deliver fully the required support. Downright opposition to educational programming is frequently to be found at the lower echelons of staff; the view dies hard that prisoners are in prison as a punishment for their crimes, a purpose which does not jibe in some minds with efforts to improve their condition.

Yet in spite of the indifference of local management and formidable obstacles in staffing and supply, there has been a continuity of commitment following the Declaration of 1870. In 1915 enough interest and concern accumulated to bring into being the Correctional Education Association, which has survived and flourished to the present time. When the American Correctional Association issued the first version of its Manual of Suggested Standards in 1956, a chapter on education and vocational training had a prominent place.[2] Building on successive editions of the Manual, the American Correctional Association's Commission on Accreditation has included fifteen "essential" standards for the management of an approved educational program. Where a facility does not meet any of these "essential" standards, it must be denied accreditation.

Over the last two centuries Americans have expected their schools to accomplish many different purposes for the nation. An educated electorate is necessary for the preservation of democracy; schools are where children, immigrants, and the educationally deprived adult can learn the rights and duties of citizenship. As industrialization has increased the complexity of work, schools have come to be essential to the learning of necessary skills. In a country committed to an egalitarian ethic, the school offers both children and adults the chance to rise according to their native abilities. In recent years the country has come to expect the schools to lay the foundation for the integration of the races. These are all lofty aims, and it cannot be claimed that our schools fully achieve them. Too often, our public schools achieve no more than a custodial objective; they hold children through the years when they are ineligible for work, keeping them occupied with classroom activity because society does not know what else to do with them.

As the makers of correctional doctrine propounded in the paragraph of the Declaration quoted above, all these aims apply to convict-students. We hope that they will learn the requirements of citizenship and thereby acquire self-respect and raise their aims above the levels that satisfied them when they were on the streets. If they lack a basis for a lawful livelihood, we hope that lack can be remedied in the classroom or the vocational training shop. School is expected to socialize the American child; we assume the process did not succeed in the case of the offender and hope that a second exposure will instill values that are more resistant to criminal behavior. And, finally, some prison managers have used education because hard labor--or labor of any kind--could not be arranged. Even in prison, school serves a custodial purpose; some prisoners are sent to school because we don't know what else to do with them.

Debate continues about the recidivism rates of the men and women released from prison. Whatever these rates may be, no one can doubt that much recidivism results from the difficult predicament that confronts the prisoner when he returns to the community. As ex-convicts they face a discouraging array of obstacles to gainful and lawful employment. These obstacles of record and status cannot be wiped away; they are barriers that can only be obviated by a good record over time. But illiteracy and lack of skills for employment can be offset by education and training. When it is not available in the prison, many convicts lose the prospect of becoming productive employees; they and society at large suffer an irreplaceable loss.

In this monograph we assume what we know to be true. Good teachers can be found to teach in prison schools--we have seen them for ourselves in the field work done in preparation for this publication. Prisoners can and do learn from them. More prisoners can and should be attending school, at least part time, than most correctional facilities provide for. We have seen plenty of evidence that administrators can organize their facilities in such a way that education is more than a square on an organization chart, but rather an integral part of most prisoners' daily life while locked up. Our task here is to propose models for reaching this attainable goal. If prison education is to become more than a sideshow, administrators must provide conditions in which good teachers can teach as many prisoners as possible.

The Need

No agency maintains national data on the educational status of prisoners. Necessarily, the distribution of offenders by the numbers needing basic education, or a high school equivalency diploma, or postsecondary education will vary from state to state, and in some states with a differential classification system, from prison to prison. But the median prisoner tests at about the eighth or ninth grade level in most systems--and in some it is considerably below that modest rung on the educational ladder. That means, of course, that a large number of prisoners test below the eighth grade level. If we accept the operational definition of a fifth grade achievement score as functional illiteracy, most state systems will find that at least 20 to 30 percent of their incarcerated populations are functionally illiterate. That means that a very large number of prisoners are unable to complete a form for applying for a job, or to pass a test in most states for a driver's license, or to cope with any of a host of simple tasks that require a basic facility with words and numbers. Some of these functional illiterates can write their names and a simple letter home; beyond that level, they cannot meet the requirements for ordinary living that most citizens take for granted. Some illiterates are truly illiterate; they cannot read or figure at all. They have had to depend on others, usually persons not much better off, for interpretation of signs and price tags and communications that the rest of us deal with as though by second nature. We have found it difficult to obtain hard data for the numbers of functional and true illiterates. The informed estimates are that in some states as many as 40 percent will be functionally illiterate, and perhaps ten or 15 percent are true illiterates. In states enjoying a strong tradition of universal school attendance, the rates are much lower--as is also the case in the Federal prisons--but at the outset of our planning, we have to allow for a substantial number of men and women who will need to be enrolled in adult basic education.[4]

In today's employment market, the lack of a high school diploma is an almost fatal disadvantage. Not only is high school graduation a screen that establishes eligibility for employment for a vast number of jobs, but it also signifies the possession of some basic skills and aptitudes needed for general industrial and service employment. Although an increasing number of offenders arrive in prison with high school credentials, few of them can pass a test at the 12.0 level or higher. For those who are past the first hurdle, adult basic education, the second, the General Education Development (GED) certificate is the next challenge. Again the percentage of prisoners who are candidates for a GED program or, alternately, enrollment in a regular high school, will vary from state to state, but in most the percentage will be in the range of 40 to 70 percent.

The remainder of the prison population will consist of men and women who are ready for postsecondary education or concentrated vocational training or persons who because of age or infirmity are unlikely to return to the general job market after their release. Even these individuals should be carefully evaluated; many of them will wish to engage in some educational activity, if only to make some constructive use of their time in prison.

The increasing interest of prisoners in education is demonstrated by the growth of college-level courses over the past 15 years. It is not uncommon to find two or three hundred prisoners in the larger state departments of corrections who are enrolled in courses leading to a degree. Many of these prisoners will be men and women whose second chance at education began in prison at the high school level.

For most prisoners, probably nearly all, incarceration might present an opportunity that was not realistically open to them when they were in the community, and will not be open again after release. Although it is true that adult education programs are widely available in most major cities, hardly any of the offenders headed for prison were sufficiently motivated or personally organized before their incarceration to take advantage of them--especially those at the most deprived level of all, the true or the functional illiterates. With time, facilities, and well-prepared teachers on hand to help them in prison, the unwelcome experience of confinement is often the last and best chance they will have to engage in systematic self-improvement. Needing such a program as much as most of them clearly do, it is nothing short of tragic that so many pass in and out of prison with no more exposure to education than a passing admonition, or sometimes a stirring exhortation, by a classification counselor--if indeed so much.

We live in times when the lack of education will shunt almost anyone to the bottom fringe of the economy, regardless of any other assets or handicaps. The offender released from prison with a low school achievement is at least doubly handicapped. Ineligible for work above the level of casual, unskilled labor, unable to communicate easily as a sender or receiver of the written word, and subject to discrimination as an ex-prisoner--and therefore a risk to an employer--the likelihood of his living a satisfying life is negligible, and his survival in the conventional economy is improbable. The relevance of a strong educational program to the reduction of recidivism is obvious, though difficult to prove statistically. Education cannot guarantee that its benefits will assure that any specific offender will refrain from further crime. Nevertheless, it is one of the very few positive contributions that a prison can make toward reducing that risk.

The Obstacles

It is possible to enroll as many as 35 or 40 percent of the population of a prison in educational programs; in our site visits we have seen it done. Yet it must be said that most correctional education programs fall far short of this level of participation. We have seen institutions in which the numbers of prisoners engaged in educational programs of any kind amounts to less than ten percent of those confined, despite the lack of anything else for prisoners to do. Clearly there are obstacles to the functioning of an active educational program.

In their authoritative evaluation of Correctional Education Programs for Inmates[5] Bell and his colleagues identified 20 major issues to be resolved in favor of educational programs if they are to flourish as integral elements of the prison program structure. The most crucial obstacles to achieving a successful educational program are administrative shortsightedness, indifference, and neglect. Too often the administrator is seen as setting an example of bored and uninformed tolerance to correctional education rather than the vigorous positive support that assures an environment in which teachers can teach and students will learn.

We shall have much more to say about the form these measures of positive support might take in later sections of this monograph. What matters here is the perception of their situation by teachers who believe they are not getting adequate administrative support. Undeniably good intentions on the part of prison management must be translated into steps taken to assure the interested cooperation of the hundreds of noneducational staff. Without that cooperation, good intentions remain ineffectual at best, and often degenerate into the cynicism that affects anyone who discovers that the good things that are said are not meant to be taken seriously.

The Bell group distributed their 20 issues among five major headings: funding and administration; the nature of the institution, program design; access to resources and materials; and evaluation. The reader cannot do better than to turn to Bell's report for a full discussion of these issues. Here we are limited to a recapitulation of a critique that is as complex as it is valuable.

The issues to be resolved begin with the administrator's role in planning the educational program. As soon as he is oriented, he will find that he must cope with several other state and local agencies with interests in education. The state departments of education will have funds to provide and responsibilities for monitoring their expenditure and accrediting the quality of instruction. In addition, local school districts will often be heavily involved in maintaining the actual programs in the institution. Sometimes the state university system will furnish instruction for those prisoners who are qualified for postsecondary education. Planning for the inclusion of all these diverse interests cannot be effective without the initiative of prison management. The pitfalls of interagency planning are well known to all administrators who have attempted it in any field of government activity. Persistence in assuring execution of plans depends entirely on the prison administrator; without his personal concern there will be no real accountability.

The provision of Federal funds authorized for the conduct of the various education programs challenges both the administrator and his educational staff to take full advantage of the resources the nation has made available to schools for the conduct of adult education. Few of these funds become available without application and justification. Inertia and unfamiliarity with procedures have caused some prisons to do without the considerable subventions available under the provisions of Federal legislation. Because these funds are granted for short periods, often no more than a year, new applications must be made, always to be accompanied with the submission of new data resulting from the previous year's performance. While it is certainly possible to exaggerate the volume of work required to obtain this "soft money,' it is true that a combination of expertise and executive persistence are necessary to obtain and retain it. The programs that these funds can provide more than justify whatever effort is required. More will be said on this topic in subsequent sections of this report.[6]

More difficult to resolve are the problems created by the very nature of a prison. No matter how concerned the warden may be about the quality of the educational program to be provided, his first responsibility is the secure custody of the institution. This inescapable priority applies to everyone working on the reservation (including teachers), and all other activities within the prison are subordinate in importance. In the best of circumstances, the prison is not an educational institution; it is an institution to which offenders are sent as punishment. Recognition of this priority should not needlessly obstruct the many secondary programs a prison must administer. It is one thing to declare that the security of the institution has the first claim on the attention of all employees; it is quite another to act as though nothing else matters.

The conflict begins with the gap between the philosophy of repressive control that too often characterizes the custodial personnel, and the belief in the importance of restorative programs. It is an understable assumption that many inmates are subversively motivated, and that many more would act out their resistance to institutional control if they saw that they could escape the consequences. But too often in our site visits we heard teachers complain that institutional schedules needlessly conflicted with classroom periods, that books and papers were subjected to long and minute scrutiny before being passed out of cellblocks and into the educational wing, or that institutional "lock-downs" closed off all educational activities for days, weeks, and even months at a time. Decisions about the maintenance of educational programs when a serious threat to security is manifest cannot always be resolved in favor of education, but such interruptions can and should be minimized by careful consideration of what is needed and what is gained by stopping activities across the board. The warden who asserts that all programs must be stopped indefinitely for security reasons is almost never right, but by making such a claim he demonstrates his opinion that educational programs really don't matter. That opinion reflects his limited administrative competence.

It is human nature to respond to incentives in choosing a course of action, and the inmates of a prison are no exception. Because the prison is a coercive institution, there is a general assumption that compliance can be gained by force without resort to incentives of any kind. Experienced prison personnel know better, but legislators and bureaucrats are often at a loss to understand why any incentive at all is needed to induce a prisoner to engage in programs that are obviously for his own good. Talking to prisoners in the course of our site visits, we found that what was obvious to us was even more compelling to them. Regular pay in a correctional industry or in institution maintenance was often absurdly low, but better than nothing, which was all a prisoner could make by going to school in some institutions. The notion persists that it is somehow wrong to pay a prisoner to do something for himself in his own best interests. Perhaps it is, but unless more ingenuity is shown by administrators in making it immediately worthwhile to engage in educational programs, many of the inmates most in need of education will choose more lucrative ways to serve their time. Awards of "good time" for participation in educational programs meet this problem in a few states. Time off from incarceration is acceptable currency for most prisoners.

Many educators report that custodial personnel resent the educational opportunities liberally afforded to prisoners that they cannot match in their own communities. It is difficult to estimate how much substance there is in this complaint. The commitment to adult education is widespread throughout the country, if not universal, and the belief that prisoners can easily get what members of the staff cannot is almost certainly an exaggeration. But exaggeration or not, the prevalence of this notion undoubtedly moves some prison personnel to be obstructive. To neutralize this idea, some administrators open educational facilities to the staff, usually with good results. Perhaps the best example of this open door policy in prison education is to be found at the Vienna Correctional Center in Illinois. In the well equipped school facilities of that minimum custody prison citizens as well as prisoners are to be found in classrooms and shops. All that is required of the nonprisoner is payment of modest tuition fees. A considerable number do attend enough to add a notable incentive to prisoner participation.

Although the value of this general participation in programs is obvious—in addition to adding interest to the instruction it tends to assure that there will be an emphasis on quality--it must be kept in mind that the primary purpose of prison education is to educate prisoners. When more outsiders use the facilities than prisoners, it is legitimate to fear that prisoners may be squeezed out.

Bell and his colleagues discovered great concern among correctional educators about the inadequacies of program design. While in conventional schools, program design is an almost exclusively professional responsibility, it has to be shared in the prison. Psychologists and counselors will assemble personal information and test results in the prison diagnostic center, and custodial supervisors will make decisions about the freedom of the prisoner to attend school at the appointed times. The elaborate assessment of educational needs that is advocated by Ryan et al.[7] must still take place, but the work has to be shared by the institutional classification committee, working with the findings of the diagnostic center. With so many participants from so many disciplines at work, the objective tends to get lost; it is assumed that what was needed last year will continue to be needed this year and next. Determination of the adequacy of last year's program is left to opinion, and the formulation of next year's program is a mixture of what has happened, combined with increments based on plausible estimates of what additional support may be available. The fact that the educational staff is often hemmed in by the walls--in much the same way if not to the same extent as the prisoners--will too often contribute to the decision that what was done last year will be what is needed next year. Lack of contact with fellow educators, with advisors from industry and commerce, and with community leaders, may stall the whole educational enterprise in complacent inertia.

Where program design and goals are compromised, good teachers will seldom remain. Their places will be taken by teachers who subsist on the margins of their profession, thereby conveying to fellow professionals that a prison is no place for a good teacher. It cannot be said too often that without good teachers no model of prison education will succeed, but that much can be done by a crew of competent instructors working together, even in a system that has been haphazardly organized.

Resources for correctional education vary from abundant and impressively sophisticated to meager and inappropriate. Carsetti[8] has shown what can be done with primitive and inexpensive materials in teaching the illiterate to read. The well known Laubach methods for eliminating illiteracy in any language depend more on the determination of the teacher than on carefully designed materials. The aids needed for teaching the illiterate are relatively inexpensive. What is needed in secondary and postsecondary education will inevitably run into substantial money. Libraries of audio-visual aids, computerized learning programs, and teaching machines are costly, though often so effective that they more than justify the expense. Equipment for vocational training, even where it is not expected that apprenticeship training will be completed, will ordinarily be even more expensive. Budgeting for prison education can seldom be ample for its purpose, but unless there is a sufficiency neither teachers nor students will take the program seriously.

While we have been impressed with the excellent use of unusually versatile teaching aids using what appears to be the latest technology, it is also distressing to see that sometimes these aids have been purchased without full consideration of how and for what purpose they will be used. The responsibility for acquiring these devices should be preceded by a prior responsibility for careful planning of their utilization.

Lack of an adequate budget severely limits appropriate referrals of released prisoners to adult education programs in the community. The continuity of the educational effort should not stop abruptly when the prisoner leaves the main gate, but it will unless preparations are made in advance. Release is seldom timed to coincide with the completion of a school term but whether it is or not, attempts should be made to ease the released prisoner into a continuing educational program in his home town. Because money and staff are seldom adequate to take on this objective, the prisoner is too often left to his own devices, with the unrealistic expectation that between his own best interests and the enthusiasm of his parole officer a connection can be made with a good school.

The Lehigh University group was impressed with the complete lack of rigorous and systematic evaluation of educational programs, and later in this report we shall have more to say about this subject. Bell and his associates considered the inattention to program evaluation as "the single most important issue" to be resolved in bringing correctional education to its potential value to prisoners. Their review of the reasons for the virtually complete dearth of evaluation is trenchant and hardly open to improvement; we quote it in full:[9]

> "The lack of any rigorous and systematic evaluation . . . is probably due to many reasons including the following:
>
> - The lack of any measurable objectives
> - The lack of any mandate to conduct such evaluations by funding agencies
> - The lack of research and measurement expertise in the system
> - The lack of interest by many researchers or investigators because of the lack of funds and the low priority of correctional education in the total research spectrum
> - The inability to control all the variables
> - The hostile environment of the correctional institution
> - The difficulty in establishing any sort of acceptable control group and thus to establish any sort of experimental design
> - Lack of concern for assessing the marketability of training and skills acquired which in turn is related to
> - Lack of established needs in the job market to which the inmate will return upon release

- The extreme concerns for either security or humane treatment often preclude measurement of any specific program outcomes as possible standards for evaluation

- Researchers are at odds about the use of recidivism rates for measuring the effectiveness of educational programs. One school of research argues that the only real evaluation of success is impact on recidivism rate, while the other maintains that any attempt to connect educational success to recidivism is unrealistic."

For many correctional administrators, evaluation has been a process by which score is kept, thereby justifying programs in terms of released offenders who do not commit crimes when returned to the community. While this naive approach to evaluation is understandable, the true usefulness of evaluation is in the planning process as a whole. When an administrator knows how many functional illiterates completed Adult Basic Education out of a total number of such prisoners in his charge, he has a basis for planning improvements in the program. That is a much more valuable piece of information than a count of the recidivists produced by the educational program two or three years after the end of their exposure to learning. Little or nothing can be accomplished with the latter data, in spite of attempts by simplistic statisticians to prove that unless recidivism is reduced significantly each year, the program under study should be terminated.

Any programmed effort must be sustained by positive results. An educational program that does not educate is readily seen for what it is and should be replaced. Success in correctional education will seldom be manifest in dramatic results; the human material is too often damaged, the deficiencies are too great to be remedied in a few years in the discouraging environment of a state prison. Objectives should be modestly and realistically stated. Their achievement must be in terms of immediate results.

Five Axioms

We have identified numerous obstacles to effective correctional education. The wonder may be that so much correctional education goes on and that so much of it is valuable and well done. The reason partly lies in the profound commitment of the American people to education. From this commitment and from the continuing belief that every man and woman has a right to improve his lot, we derive the following propositions, which we consider to be fundamental to correctional programs in general and to correctional education in particular:

1. Educational activity is a continuing thread in a satisfying and successful life, whether that of a citizen or a prisoner.

2. Those educational deficiencies of prisoners that can be remedied should be identified and remedial programs provided so that they will have a fair start on self-improvement.

3. Educational activity in prison has a special value in the immediate present by providing constructive activity in the place of destructive idleness and make-work.

4. The evaluation of any correctional education program must be in terms of its achievement of specific and immediate objectives.

5. Evaluations by the criterion of recidivism are of no value for planning and should be ignored. The value of correctional education in terms of its impact on post-release conduct is random and largely unpredictable. For some it will make the crucial difference between survival and return to prison. For others it will make no difference at all.

We think of these propositions as so many axioms. They define the nature of the state's gamble in attempting to remedy the educational deficiencies of offenders. Sure winners will lose sometimes, even though elaborate programs have been provided with the best intentions on the part of all concerned--including the prisoner himself. In terms of our axioms, the alternative of no program at all is intolerable.

The program models presented here are intended to stimulate the creation of a structure for effective correctional education. We hope that we can show ways to offset the obstacles to effectiveness that we have outlined above. The usefulness of the structure is limited to the degree of competence that the custody staff and the teachers bring to the tasks they must undertake. A good program model is no substitute for a good teacher, but put into effect, it will spread the educational enterprise to the persons and places where it will do the most good.

FOOTNOTES

1. American Prison Association, Proceedings of the 60th Annual Congress (Louisville, Kentucky: n.p., 1930), p. 250.

2. American Prison Association, Manual of Suggested Standards for a State Correctional System (n.p., 1946) Revised 1959, 1966 and 1975. All editions prior to 1975 are now out of print. In 1954 the American Prison Association became the American Correctional Association.

3. Commission on Accreditation for Corrections, Manual of Standards for Adult Correctional Institutions (College Park, Maryland: August 1977), pp. 76-78.

4. Some indication of the educational status of offenders may be drawn from the data of the California Department of Corrections, which routinely collects all quantifiable information that can be obtained from offenders at the time of reception. According to the regularly published "Characteristics of the Felon Population in California State Prisons," out of a total of 18,421 male prisoners confined on 30 June 1979, 963, or 5.5 percent, were true illiterates when received. Including these illiterates, 4,166, or 23.9 percent had a fifth grade education or less. Between the 6th grade and the 11th, inclusive, there were 11,727 prisoners, or 67.1 percent of the total. Only nine percent were rated at the 12th grade or higher. The median grade placement was 7.6. Women prisoners rated slightly higher; the median was 8.4. Illiterates and functional illiterates composed 16.8 percent of a population of 897.

5. National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice. Correctional Education Programs for Inmates. National Evaluation Program, Phase I, by Raymond Bell et al. (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office. Stock No. 281-3801/1608. June 1979)

6. In Appendix A, we have provided a comprehensive list of Federal agencies that grant funds for the support of correctional education.

7. T. A. Ryan et al., Model of Adult Basic Education in Corrections (Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975). See also· T. A. Ryan et al., Model of Adult Career Education in Corrections (Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975).

8. Janet K. Carsetti, Motivational Activities for Reluctant Readers (Silver Spring, Maryland: Read, Inc., 1979)

9. National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, Correctional Education Programs for Inmates, by Bell et al., pp. 12-13.

CHAPTER II: ACADEMIC EDUCATION: CONCEPTS AND PROGRAMS

In this chapter, we shall describe the three components of a prison academic education program designed to meet the needs of the entire population: adult basic education, secondary education leading to a high school diploma or its equivalent, and postsecondary education. Progress has been rapid in each of these sectors in the free community, particularly in the armed forces. New concepts and new technology have enabled teachers and students to accomplish speedily the achievement of learning objectives that formerly took years, using clumsy adaptations of classroom methods intended for the instruction of children. Many prison systems have successfully imported the new procedures; we are certain that it would be to the advantage of all to put them into effect.

This presentation relies on the extensive literature of adult education and on our own observations. It is an account of the tension between reality as it is to be found in the contemporary American prison and the known capabilities of adult education when administered under favorable conditions. To know what is possible is the necessary foundation for progressive change. If the basic concepts of adult education are understood, those changes will be seen as feasible and urgent by those who have tolerated the lapse of educational programs into the doldrums. Here we shall do our best to show how new concepts can be translated into programs that will maximize the benefits of adult education for prisoners. The delivery of these programs is a separate topic, in its way an even more difficult problem, with which we will deal in Chapter III. We are convinced that the programs themselves can reduce the formidable odds against the prisoner as he makes his way out into free society again.

The Adult Learner

Most consumers of education are children. The educational professions have been largely oriented to fill their needs--hence the word pedagogy, derived from the Greek for child and teach. In spite of the growing belief that learning should be lifelong, most laymen and even some teachers think of education as an experience that happens to children. We know that as a child grows, adjustments must be made in teaching methods, but we still think of education as consisting of an adult professional seeing to it that his students learn what adults think they ought to learn.

Adult educators have long known that there are important differences between the child in a compulsory school and the adult learner who has chosen to take systematic steps to increase his knowledge and skills. Both children and adults may be learning the same subject matter, sometimes in the same building at different times of the day. Recognition of the differences between adults and children as learners is crucial to the success of adult education. These differences are never more important than at the time when a grown man or woman decides to try again to learn the reading, writing, and figuring that he did not learn years before as a child in school. That decision is, of course, the essential step that we hope the illiterate prisoner will take. If, having made this decision, he finds that the prison school is really a place where competence can be increased and opportunities can be extended, he is likely to remain. The prison school that can offer such an environment for the learner at the most basic level will also attract students with needs that may be just as pressing but at a more advanced level.

In his authoritative account of adult education, Knowles[1] identifies four basic assumptions about learners that have to be modified for the successful teaching of adults. To abridge a long and productive review of this complex topic, these four revised assumptions can be expressed in the following statements.

- The adult in school is no longer a dependent; he is a self-directed person, whose decision to attend school is the result of a personal decision-making process.
- He arrives in school with an accumulated reservoir of experience which is a resource for learning.
- His motivation to learn comes from the requirements of his present or expected social roles and occupational prospects.
- What he learns is for immediate application rather than deferred use, as must be the case with a child or even a youth in a university.

These assumptions were drawn from the experience of the teaching profession in the education of adults in free society. Without an understanding of these differences between adults and children as learners, the American investment in adult education could never have prospered as it has done since World War II. For whatever reason he has returned to the classroom, no adult will learn well if treated like a child, nor will he continue the experience longer than he must. There are few teachers who do not appreciate this fundamental principle in the education of adults. It is not as well understood by laymen who, in prisons, make many of the most important decisions about educational policy.

Knowles' four assumptions are guiding principles for teaching adult prisoners. It is easy for prison staff, including sometimes the teachers, to think of the prisoner/student as more like a child attending school under the compulsory education laws. After all, the prisoner is a dependent of the institution, and in most correctional institutions the opportunities for self-direction are exceedingly limited, much more limited than those of any but the youngest children. The prison authorities have powers of coercion that are so comprehensive that special provision must be made to allow for the legitimate self-direction of prisoners by exception to the rules of control. (Illicit self-direction goes on all the time in gang membership, predatory conduct, and conspiracies to evade coercion.) If the prisoner is illiterate, or semiliterate at best, he is hemmed in by the same boundaries that shape the child's world. Those boundaries are usually made more constricting by the repertory of compensating behavior that he has acquired over a lifetime as a socially handicapped person. Even though it has been shown again and again that educational handicaps are removable, the prisoner must find that out for himself. Accustomed to making do without skills that most of us take for granted, the illiterate prisoner will often see no advantage in changing, no expectation that the effort to change will succeed.

In varying degrees, the same is true for offenders who arrive in prison with a better store of knowledge and skills. Less than ten percent of most state prison populations can pass a school achievement test at a level above 12.0. The reasons are plain. Some schools in some localities will allow students to graduate from high school without a competence in the subject matter that they have supposedly been taught. A great many young people leave school long before high school graduation is a reasonable prospect. Whether the individual is a semiliterate or a semiliterate dropout, his experiences of school have usually been those of defeat and humiliation. That his inadequacies as an adult have led him into criminal behavior to compensate for his inadequacies as a competitor in conventional society may be obvious to everyone, even to the offender himself. Neverthless, it is hard for many prisoners to accept this realistic assessment of their condition and to make the appropriate decision to enroll in school.

Prison educators soon come to know that prisoners will often apply for enrollment with reasons that have little to do with a desire for knowledge. To escape from the crashing tedium of the yard or the dayroom, to find a haven of relative safety from predatory fellow prisoners, to be in the presence of a female teacher, or to make a good impression on the parole board or the classification committee are all objectives that have nothing to do with satisfying a desire to learn. Once he has found his way into the Education Wing, and into a classroom over which a good teacher presides, he may discover the pleasure and the profit of learning. Our interviews with both teachers and students brought out statements to this effect too frequently to dismiss them as self-serving sanctimoniousness. Most people with serious educational deficiencies are well aware of the extent of their need. To discover that that need can be filled, and without pain and enbarrassment, is one of the few satisfactions available to a prisoner.

Correctional education at the basic level will substantially improve the life chances of the prisoners it can reach. Janet Carsetti[2] has pointed out that 99 percent of the functional illiterates she surveyed in youth training facilities were capable of reading much better than they do. Similarly, the literate prisoner, regardless of how much of his formal education he has retained, can know much more than he does--as is true of any adult. To the extent that a good school with good teachers and modern equipment can increase the knowledge and competence of prisoners, hope is restored and unpromising future careers become less bleak. A prisoner with realistic expectations of a better future will be much less likely to be a rule infractor. No one should dismiss as irrelevant the prospect that as more prisoners become genuine students, order and safety will be more readily maintained.

The Idea of Competency

Deficient education is not a handicap restricted to the prison population. Surveys conducted by the United States Office of Education during the 1960's found that as much as 20 percent of the nation's adult population are functionally illiterate. It is reasonable to assume that a comparable percentage, though not illiterate, lack the knowledge and skills that should have been learned in secondary schools to function as persons competent to maintain themselves as independent adults, even though no surveys have been done to establish their numbers and the extent of their handicaps.

Education has many objectives, of which competency is only one. Here we must limit the discussion to a review of the concepts which define it and the educational structure that can most effectively make possible its achievement. Any useful definition must be operational. To say that competency is the possession of the knowledge and skills that enable the adult to function as an independent social and economic entity does not establish what knowledge and skills he must have. Everyone will agree that the possession of a minimum level of skills in communication and computation is essential. Beyond that consensus, the term becomes elastic. The content of the knowledge to which these skills are to be applied may be conveniently divided into various areas such as occupational, social, civic, legal, and health, to state only some of the most significant. This distribution of the essentials of competency immediately suggests the elasticity of the term. What is needed for economic survival in a farm community is certainly different in content from what is required of an industrial worker in a metropolis, though the basic skills needed by both will be essentially the same.

The term is elastic in another way, too. Occupations have very different requirements both in knowledge and skills. Mechanics need a different preparation for occupational training than salespersons, bank tellers or small businessmen. Accordingly, adult education planners begin with a study of the social and economic context of the communities for which they are preparing their students, then defining the continuum of competency that may be called for. The higher the level at which an individual can perform the wider his economic opportunities will be, as well as his satisfactions in a world that is inhospitable to those who occupy the lowest rungs on the educational ladder.

For those who are planning prison education programs, much emphasis must be given to the conquest of functional illiteracy. That is a common deficiency with a context that is universal, not dependent in any way on the particulars of the community to which the prisoner will return. For the prisoner in secondary or postsecondary education, the program will probably be more useful if some attention is given to the occupational direction in which the individual is likely to go.

Because competency is the base of and the objective of so much adult education today, many educators have devoted special attention to the development of model curricula to achieve it. Many publishers have packaged materials for this purpose; lists of the most effective series can be obtained from state departments of education, or from local school districts. The common base for most of them is the Adult Performance Level model, developed by the Texas State Department of Education with the sponsorship of the United States Office of Education.

The Adult Performance Level Model

A nation with an advanced economy depending on the possession of a high level of skills by the working population cannot tolerate the burden of a large class of people who cannot achieve these skills because they cannot read or write or because of their lack of many skills less fundamental than literacy but nevertheless crucial for competent performance at even a semi-skilled occupation. The needs for a remedy for what was seen as widespread deficiency led the Office of Education to commission the Texas Department of Education to undertake the necessary research for the creation of an improved model of adult education. We do not need to dwell on the many studies that were done to design the Adult Performance Level (APL) plan for adult education. An understanding of the idea and its application is essential to the modernization of any adult education program. In the social sciences, few research projects have had such beneficial results.

The model arbitrarily allows for three levels of competency. It will be seen that these levels correspond roughly to the traditional division of schooling into elementary, secondary and postsecondary education. However, the conceptual development rests on a definition of what should be the competence achieved by the learning individual at each level of performance. The definitions of competency on which APL is based are as follows:

- Adult Performance Level 1 (APL 1)
  (Least competent adults)

  APL 1's are those adults whose mastery of competency objectives is associated with:

  - inadequate income--poverty level or less;
  - inadequate education--eight years or fewer;
  - low job status--unemployed or unskilled.

- Adult Performance Level 2 (APL 2)
  (Marginally competent adults)

  APL 2's are those adults whose mastery of competency objectives is associated with:

  - marginal income--more than poverty but no discretionary income;
  - marginal education--9 to 11 years of school;
  - semiskilled to upper-level blue collar and sales jobs status.

- Adult Performance Level 3 (APL 3)
  (Most competent adults)

  APL 3's are those adults whose mastery of competency objectives is associated with:

  - highest level of income--varying amounts of discretionary income;
  - highest levels of education--high school completion or more;
  - white collar or professional-management job status.[3]

Everyone knows that the world is not so simple as to be divided into three performance levels. What this distribution of the population accomplishes is a rough cut of the tasks to be done if people at the lower levels of competency are to rise to the potential of which they are capable.

Many questions about social and personal values will arise in the minds of critics. This society is far from unanimity about the desirability of everyone striving for white collars, higher incomes, and more status. Nevertheless, the reality of American prisons is that it contains thousands of men and women whose condition is related to efforts to extricate themselves from the inadequacies and constricted perspectives indicated in APL 1. Their striving has culminated in the disaster of a felony conviction. To be given a practical route from APL 1 to APL 2 or higher is a contribution to a life better than existence as a community predator.

The Texas research to establish the three performance levels began with simple specifics. The aim was to bring the student to a level of competent adult performance in four areas of knowledge and skill:

- adult reading,
- adult writing level,
- adult computational level,
- general knowledge variables.

The first three are obvious requirements, but the definition of minimum levels of acceptable competence for each of these components of the three APL's was the object of considerable study, leading to the recognition that different communities exact different requirements as to each of these skills. The judgment was made that although these variations had to be allowed for, there was a core of knowledge and skills that was "critical to the daily life of successful adults."[4] This core consists of five content areas:

- community resources,
- occupational knowledge,
- consumer economics,
- health,
- government and law.

Five skills were identified:

- identification of facts and forms,
- reading,
- writing,
- computation,
- problem solving.

For each of the content areas a goal was specified, and they are reproduced here:

- "Community Resources: to understand that community resources, including transportation systems, are utilized by individuals in society in order to obtain a satisfactory mode of living;
- Occupational Knowledge: to develop a level of occupational knowledge which will enable adults to secure employment;
- Consumer Economics: to manage a family economy and to demonstrate awareness of sound purchasing principles;
- Health: to insure good mental and physical health for the individual and his family;

- "Government and Law: to promote an understanding of society through government and law and to be aware of governmental functions, agencies and regulations which define individual rights and obligations."[5]

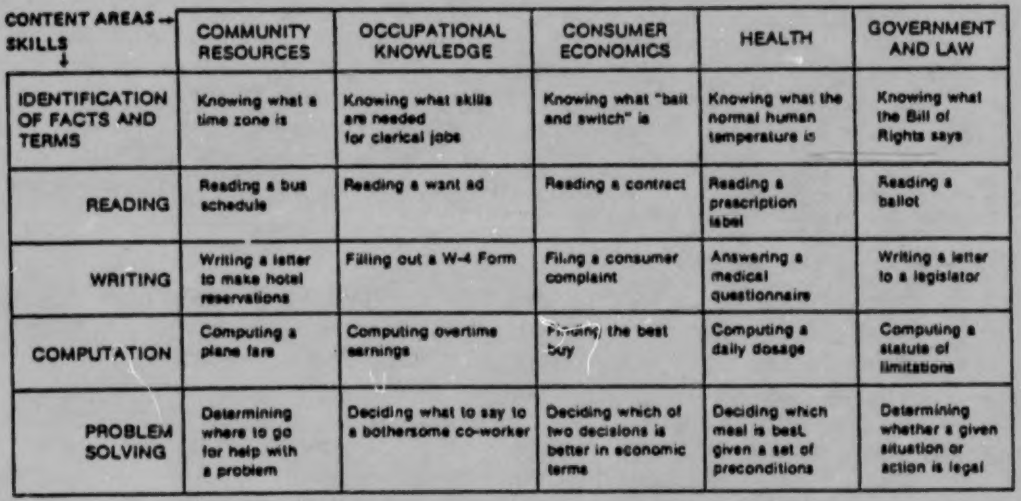
These goals are stated in language of loose generality, but their common aim is clear. These are the kinds of knowledge that the competent adult--the good citizen--must master. Without a satisfactory competence in these requirements for daily living, any American is headed for an insecure life on the social and economic margins of the community. From our large population of such individuals there accumulates a huge burden of dependents on the rest of the society. That burden includes the criminal population with which correctional officials must cope.

The strategy for attaining these goals is set forth in a list of subordinate objectives specified for each goal. Space does not permit the listing of each objective for each goal, but the logic of this hierarchical arrangement is evident in the objectives outlined for reaching the goal of understanding government and law--a topic on which most correctional officials will hope to enlighten the felons in their charge.

- "OBJECTIVE: To develop a working vocabulary related to government and law in order to understand their function in society and in the personal life of the individual. This should be an ongoing process as each objective is covered.
- OBJECTIVE: To develop an understanding of the structure and function of the federal government.
- OBJECTIVE: To investigate the relationship between the individual and the legal system.
- OBJECTIVE: To obtain a working knowledge of the various legal documents which the individual will need as a member of society.
- OBJECTIVE: To explore the relationship between government services and the American tax system."[6]

Each objective is to be achieved by helping the student work his way through a comparable list of subordinate objectives. Bearing in mind that this system was not put together with the convict in mind--but rather to address the needs of the nation's enormous population of the undereducated--it cannot be denied that the accomplishment of these goals and objectives within the offender population will diminish their vulnerability as men and women existing on the margins of a world they do not understand.

While the objectives add specificity to the work of the curriculum planner, they leave much to his imagination when he turns to the preparation of a syllabus or lesson plans. It is here that the system designers seem to have their work most controversial. Examples of tasks to be accomplished in achieving the transitions between one APL and another are shown in a two-dimensional matrix reproduced here:



CONTENT AREAS → SKILLS ↓	COMMUNITY RESOURCES	OCCUPATIONAL KNOWLEDGE	CONSUMER ECONOMICS	HEALTH	GOVERNMENT AND LAW
IDENTIFICATION OF FACTS AND TERMS	Knowing what a time zone is	Knowing what skills are needed for clerical jobs	Knowing what "bait and switch" is	Knowing what the normal human temperature is	Knowing what the Bill of Rights says
READING	Reading a bus schedule	Reading a want ad	Reading a contract	Reading a prescription label	Reading a ballot
WRITING	Writing a letter to make hotel reservations	Filling out a W-4 Form	Filing a consumer complaint	Answering a medical questionnaire	Writing a letter to a legislator
COMPUTATION	Computing a plane fare	Computing overtime earnings	Finding the best buy	Computing a daily dosage	Computing a statute of limitations
PROBLEM SOLVING	Determining where to go for help with a problem	Deciding what to say to a bothersome co-worker	Deciding which of two decisions is better in economic terms	Deciding which meal is best, given a set of preconditions	Determining whether a given situation or action is legal

Figure 1. Content-by-skills matrix: Examples of tasks

SOURCE: Adult APL Survey, User's Guide (Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1976) p. 1.

More guidance on the definition of tasks will be found in the User's Guide.

For the prison educator, the APL curriculum has many attractions. It is carefully designed for adult education and has been tested in the public schools. Materials are available for the instructor to use in the classroom that dissolve the resemblance to grade school pedagogy.[7] Perhaps most important, the APL system provides for a continuity for all prisoners engaged in education, from the functional illiterate to the individual working toward postsecondary status. The entire approach to teaching and learning is consistent, structured as it is by units of content aimed at the completion of a specific task rather than passing from grade to grade.

The APL program has the additional advantage of responding to the basic requirements of adult education laid down by theorists. It does take account of the need of the adult to be self-directing by providing him with the means to relieve his dependency on others for communications and computation skills. His reservoir of life experience is respected and used as the foundation on which he has to build; whatever his performance level, it is established as the point from which he will move.

Most important of all, the character of the instruction is intended for immediate application. The student is trained to work on arithmetic problems which will help him fill out his income tax returns and then is given some actual income tax forms to fill out. English composition is directed toward the preparation of job applications and business letters that anyone has to write from time to time, rather than the themes and book reports that often constitute high school English instruction.

The Adult Performance Level system is far from an educational panacea. There will always be prisoners who cannot learn because of mental disturbance or defect, and careful selection processes will assure that they will not be signed up for tasks they cannot perform. Nor does the APL system solve all the problems of motivation and resistance. Old lifers expecting to spend the rest of their days in custody may be enticed into learning situations as a way of passing the time, but they are not likely to respond to the appeal of a course which will enable them to apply for jobs that will never be available to them. Another prisoner for whom APL will have little appeal is the young hoodlum who escaped the classroom too recently to be willing to consider a return on any conditions.

For the prisoner who has reflected about his situation and the urgency of his need to take measures to re-equip himself for the real world, the Adult Performance Level system is a credible and interesting program to capture his attention and engage his efforts on his own behalf. It requires nothing of him that he does not need rather obviously.

Assessment and Diagnosis

Three questions confront the educator when deciding what to teach a prospective pupil. What does he know? How much can he know? What obstacles are there to his learning more? These are the problems of assessment and diagnosis. They are particularly important to answer in the prison setting. The prison educator cannot afford to take the chance of pushing offenders into yet another failure by making demands on their learning capacities that they cannot meet because of inadequacies of preparation or mental and physical handicaps that must be taken into account. Conversely, he knows that with most offenders the experience of success in school is a splendid and realistic prospect ahead; if it happens it is surely one of the most important forces that might direct him into a law-abiding and constructive future career.

For most prisoners, the process of assessment and diagnosis need not be complex. The first question--what does he know?--can be answered by administering any of a number of school achievement tests. The United States Bureau of Prisons routinely administers the Stanford Achievement Test, which will define the grade placement of the student with respect to various subject matters; this well-known test is used for placement in many other prison systems. For routine use in a reception center where better educated offenders are expected it provides a rough cut estimate of where a prisoner should be in a conventional school setting. For prisoners with no serious learning problems, it will serve well. It can be administered in groups; the results are easily interpreted to the individual tested; progress at appropriate times can be determined by a retest. Where prisoners with minimal school experience are to be expected, the Wide Range Achievement Test or the Test of Adult Basic Education or the California Achievement Test are probably more appropriate.

To meet the needs of adult learners who will be given opportunities to work at their own speed in a learning center setting, a wide range of tests has been developed from which an adult educator can choose to make placement decisions. Some of these tests are integrated with programmed courses of instruction which will settle the take-off point for the student as he starts on the packaged materials to which he will be assigned. In Appendix B we have reproduced a list of assessment instruments in general use in correctional education.[8] Some are norm-referenced and some are criterion-referenced tests measuring functional competencies.

The assessment of learning potential depends on the student's performance on a test of intelligence. Nearly every prison system administers some kind of test to measure intelligence at the point of reception. It is obviously of somewhat less significance for the correctional educator than the placement tests; prisons hardly ever receive offenders who cannot increase their knowledge and skills beyond the levels at which they stand when they arrive. What is important about the intelligence test is not only the estimate it provides of the highest achievement of which the prisoner is capable, but also an estimate of the rate at which he is able to learn. A student with intelligence substantially above average can be expected to learn very rapidly if motivated to work at full capacity, whereas another student with substantially lower than average intelligence may have to settle for slower progress to a more modest goal than can be projected for his brighter peers. Typical of intelligence tests administered in adult correctional institutions are the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) and variants on the Army "Beta" tests. Group administration of such tests at the time of reception is an obvious course to take in sorting out prisoners for the many kinds of non-educational purposes for which they must be classified. However, it is frequently pointed out that many prisoners are at a considerable disadvantage in this testing situation. They have just arrived, they face an immediate future of much unpleasantness, and they often have no idea of the significance of the tests to which they are subjected. Depressed and indifferent, many do not perform as well as they could and their scores do not fairly represent their abilities. Teachers and educational counselors have to be alert to this contingency. Where there is reason to believe that a test score does not really measure capacity, they call for a new test.

Most of the prison educators with whom we have discussed the problems of assessment tend to minimize the physical and intellectual handicaps to learning that may impede the learning process. Most young men arriving in prison are in fairly good physical health. Although many test at the dull normal range of intelligence and some at even lower levels, it is very rare to find a profoundly retarded person in prison; when such a person strays into incarceration, protective measures are taken and an attempt is made to find an alternative institutional placement. Persons with active mental illness should be discovered by psychologists at the reception center, who may request the educational supervisor to join in prescribing some kind of individualized program which will take account of the prisoner's mental condition.

Nevertheless, there are some obstacles to learning that need to be assessed carefully. The educational process depends on the efficiency of the learner's eyes and ears. Visual functions may be impaired, sometimes merely by the lack of a proper corrective lens, sometimes by a more serious physiological inability to move the eyes and focus them together. Visual perception may be defective; the student may be unable to discriminate letters and other symbols, or to estimate position and distance. Auditory functions must allow for sufficiently good hearing for classroom participation or the use of teaching machines and cassettes. Auditory perception may be defective in that the student lacks the ability to make sense out of the things he hears. Finally, some people are afflicted with dyslexia, a condition in which symbols tend to be confused—as in the order of letters in a word--thereby impeding the reading process. Persons with any of these five deficiencies, and others which are less common, cannot perform at the level of intellectual efficiency that might be possible for them if these conditions could be corrected—as is often possible. Where test performance is below the level that might be expected, a perceptive educational counselor will arrange for a battery of special medical examinations intended to define exactly the deficiency that presents an impediment. In many cases the individual will be unaware of the nature of his difficulties; the fact that for many of the conditions mentioned remedial measures can be taken will often be seen as great and life-enhancing benefit, as indeed is truly the case. It is to be remembered that as with most handicaps, the individual who is affected will have had a lifetime to develop compensating mechanisms, most of which have to be discarded if treatment is effectively carried out. Perhaps the most serious such mechanism is the sense of inferiority that comes with a conviction that one is incapable of tasks that others can do with apparent ease. Although the direct treatment of such conditions, when they are diagnosed, may succeed mechanically—as with the prescription of a proper lens refraction or a hearing aid—or medically, as with neurological treatments, the acquisition of self-confidence is a psychological problem that will have to be solved over a longer range of time. Certainly the teacher is in one of the best positions to help the prisoner with charting his true capabilities and making sure that he can capitalize on them.

The technical development of assessment and diagnostic instruments for adult education has been carried very far during the last thirty or forty years. Properly administered, these instruments can define with great precision the educational needs and capabilities of any candidate for adult education. They are a useless waste of time and money if programs of instruction are not readily available so that the prescriptions from a needs assessment can be followed. It is a condition that is too often found in adult corrections that a perfectly sound program of assessment is in place at the reception center which leads into an undermanned underequipped prison school. When it is recalled that correctional education is the only program in prison that offers the prisoner a change for the better that is readily measurable as he does his time, it is ironic indeed that a sound foundation should be laid on which nothing is built.

Adult Basic Education

Practically every prison in the country has a program to supply the schooling that some prisoners missed when they were small children. There are many differences of opinion about correctional education and the values that should be attached to it, but we have heard no dissent from the view that illiterate prisoners and those who function at the elementary levels of education ought to be in school.

For some prisoners, it is a matter of beginning at the beginning. They are the true illiterates who must learn how to read, write, and figure. Others, a great many others, must build on the shaky foundation of "functional" illiteracy. They can read simple materials, write a simple letter home, and perhaps do the simple calculations required of shoppers or gamblers, but the communication of complexity is beyond them—whether on the sending or on the receiving ends.

When the illiterate, whether "true" or "functional," finds that he really is learning, a rediscovery of self takes place. If the mysteries of the printing word are mysteries no longer, he may wonder what else he can do that he had always thought beyond his reach. Those who think they have the data to show that rehabilitation programs don't work have not witnessed the transparent pleasure that the illiterate prisoner displays on finding that he can do things that had seemed to exceed his grasp. His sense of inferiority to everyone else begins to evaporate with the reading of the first page of a comic book, the writing of the first letter home, or the successful calculation of the first problem in decimals. Whatever the outcome of his continuing exposure to school, he will never be the same man that he was when he landed in the prison receiving room. His life chances have been boosted by this critical increase in competence; even though he has a long way to go to catch up with his peers, the route is no longer closed to him by the simple fact of illiteracy. This is an age when the difference between an illiterate and an adult with the basic skills for competent functioning has never before been so crucial to survival.

For the prisoner needing adult basic education, motivation has traditionally been spurred by parole boards and classification committees. Sometimes the completion of a certain number of grades, as measured on a school achievement test or some other instrument, is prescribed as a requirement for release. The good intentions are obvious. The illiterate is virtually unemployable at any regular occupation and, as such, is a bad risk for parole. The odds are improved by schooling, and certainly there is great motivating power in making release contingent on the achievement of an educational goal.

Whether there is any need for such a policy is at least debatable; its fairness is even more open to question. Men and women are not sent to prison because they are illiterate; they are locked up because they have committed crimes. To protract the punishment because of failure to act for one's own benefit results in a caricature of the rehabilitative ideal and will, if taken too literally, lead to offenders serving much more time than their better educated peers who have committed the same offenses.

We believe that regardless of the question of fairness, this strategy is unnecessary. The combination of the work of a good educational counselor and a good teacher in the basic education learning center will obviate the need for coercion. We think the learning process works best when the decision to learn is left to the learner. It is far too easy for prison officials to rely on coercion to induce compliance. There are few positive decisions that a prisoner can make on his own. It is shortsighted to deny him the satisfaction of making up his mind to better his condition by signing up for school. Ideally, a prisoner should satisfy himself, not a friendly counselor or the intimidating parole board, or a front office regime that sends him to school because that is the policy for prisoners whose educational achievement scores fall below an unacceptably low figure. Those prisoners who will not attend school except under duress are unlikely to learn enough to justify their presence in the classroom.

Most of the educational policy makers in the prison systems we visited believed that a good educational experience for adults had to be voluntary. That certainly does not rule out the use of reasonable incentives. A strict idealist will hold that education should be engaged in for its own sake or for abstractions like a better understanding of the community, a better qualification for employment, or a better ability to cope with the tasks of living in a complex society. It is perfectly true that motivation to persevere in the tasks of learning is sustained over any long run by the application of what is learned to life in the immediate present. However, there is no gainsaying the fact that many prisoners arrive in school because they can't stand the crashing tedium of the yard or the dayroom, because there is a woman teacher who relieves the monotony of an all-male environment, or because they think that a record of school attendance won't do any harm during a parole board appearance. Whatever it is that gets a prisoner into school of his own free will must be accepted without too much scrutiny; what is going to keep him in school is the sense that he is learning, that his presence is giving him something he needs. To assure that prisoner/students maintain this sense of achievement calls for the planning and administration of a skillful teaching program.

Our rosy account of the satisfactions of adult basic education must also deal with the problems that must be solved before the gains can be realized. In the first place, prisoners who did not learn when they were children have reached maturity with considerable doubt that they can learn. Many have found stratagems to conceal their illiteracy that give them the illusion that they can cope well enough without exposing their true status by enrolling in classes for the most elementary instruction. That hurdle can be surmounted without difficulty if precautions are taken to preserve some confidentiality in the assignment. Once instruction begins with the unfamiliar experience of individual attention from an understanding teacher, sometimes female, resistance will usually dissolve.

A second and frequently mentioned problem in basic education is the availability of appropriate materials. According to the National Correctional Education Evaluation Project, the lack of good teaching materials is not as serious a problem as is often alleged. For literacy classes, it should not be a problem at all. Almost any materials that impinge on the prisoner's interest may serve as the basis of instruction, such as comic books, stories in the daily newspapers, or, as one teacher wryly reported to us, pornography within the limits of the prison's tolerance. There is certainly no need to import discarded children's primers--as used to be done quite generally. Dick and Jane, that cheerful pair from the first grade readers, have no place in a curriculum for adults. They are supplanted by primary reading materials in growing abundance. Lists of adult basic education instructional materials may be found in a number of publications.[9]

Despite the availability of new and sometimes expensive instructional technology, it cannot be too often stressed that the basic ingredient for adult basic education is a sensitive teacher who has the patience to give a lot of individual attention to a student who is none too sure that he can do what is asked of him. That kind of attention requires that the teacher be allowed enough time to be patient.

The Laubach Method

Consider the well-known Laubach method of adult education at the primary level.[10] Developed by its originator, Dr. Frank Laubach, it has been in wide use throughout the world and has been applied in many languages other than English. Because of the simplicity of the method and its reputation for effectiveness, it has been put to successful use in many American prisons. An example of its application is the literacy program at the Minnesota State Prison at Stillwater. Although the State of Minnesota has a superior school system and an enviable rate of literacy, officials of the Department of Corrections estimate that about 10 percent of the prison population--about 200 in all--are functional illiterates. To meet their needs is a formidable workload. All education at this level is one-on-one instruction. A visitor to a literacy learning center will find at the most four or five students. The teacher will work with one directly; she will spend an hour a day with him and then give him skill books to read or work with while she turns her attention to another prisoner. This program will run for nine months or more, one-on-one throughout. About eight or ten students can be managed in this way. The Stillwater prison employs two teachers during the day and one in the evening for literacy instruction. As students advance, gaining confidence in what they are learning to do, they can work with more independence and in groups. At the first, when everything depends on close attention by the teacher, instruction must be intensive and painstaking.

The Laubach method has a number of advantages that should be borne in mind in planning an educational program. We have already mentioned the desirability of some privacy in the involvement of the illiterate student in the remedy of his often embarrassing handicap. Like so many other prisoners, the illiterate, if he has ever been in school, will not remember it as an experience that he would wish to repeat. Sure that he is bound to fail if assigned to a class, he will resist enrollment or, if enrolled, will drop out if he conveniently can. The tutorial methods of Laubach put him into an entirely different learning situation, one in which the only consideration is himself and his problem. There is no comparison of his progress with that of others. He is the class; there is no bottom or top.

In the California Youth Authority institutions, the learner will discover that eventually he may be a Laubach tutor himself. There are obvious psychological advantages to this arrangement. Self-esteem rises when one helps others and succeeds, and for no one in the prison setting is the increase of self-esteem more important than it is for the illiterate offender. Further, as every teacher knows, one of the best ways to learn is to teach, and that is something the Laubach tutor will find out, too.

It is important to remember that the Laubach method was originally designed to spread literacy in countries in which illiteracy prevailed in the complete absence of schools. Illiterate peasants and villagers were taught by Laubach missionaries, and they were expected and urged to teach their families and friends. That called for a method that an unsophisticated person could follow with hope of success; the tutor had to be given a guide that he could follow in much more detail than is necessary for a professional teacher. Once the method is mastered, its administration is a matter of following instructions. Such a method offers the prison administrator a way of augmenting instructional staff by using not only prisoners but also volunteers from the community. We observed that in many institutions this opportunity was taken. Once volunteers are trained, they can make substantial and enthusiastic contributions to the educational program. In participating in this constructive way, citizens learn about the institution and its problems at first hand; their interest and understanding are available for mobilizing public support for correctional programs.[11]

Although the Laubach method presents advantages of obvious significance to both teachers and administrators, there are two problems of some importance to consider in its implementation. First, when inmate tutors and volunteers are not used, it is costly in teaching time. The commitment of one teacher for a full year to the instruction of no more than a dozen students will appear to be a disproportionate investment to cost-conscious administrators and budget analysts. The fact that the method is designed for non-professional use makes it possible to meet this objection without compromising the program's effectiveness.

The second problem is that many teachers feel that the process is uncomfortable. Its rigid structure, designed for non-professionals, calls for a mechanical approach to teaching that does not seem consistent with their training. Most professionals are accustomed to a wide selection of commercially prepared materials, and many make efforts to collect their own. The Laubach method requires them to go by the book and discourages them from deviation. What is a huge advantage in preparing a barely literate villager in a developing country for the task of teaching even less literate villagers will seem like a denial of professional creativity to the experienced teacher.

Literacy and Project READ

Less rigid methods of literacy instruction for adults have long been in practice by adult educators. The experience compiled has been organized for use in youth and adult correctional facilities by Janet Carsetti, of Project READ (Reading Efficiency and Delinquency). Funded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration and the National Institute of Corrections, Project Read has been co-sponsored by the American Bar Association and the American Correctional Association, both of which organizations have special interests in furthering literacy teaching in correctional institutions. While Dr. Carsetti's methods are not unique, her contributions to the training of literacy teachers for correctional services and her circulation of materials and ideas offers an important resource for the development of programs and the refinement of methods.

Dr. Carsetti began with a survey of inmates in youth training centers, in which she found that nearly two-thirds of those studied were functionally illiterate, but that less than one percent were handicapped to the extent that they could not read much better than they did. (We have checked this finding with other specialists in reading. The general opinion is that if anything, the estimate of one percent is too high.) Reasoning that students learn faster when under the impetus of necessity or immediate gratification, Dr. Carsetti uses familiar materials such as comic strips, job application forms, menus, labels or anything else that might induce a "reluctant reader" to make the effort to read. The teacher makes up packets of such materials in advance; that takes time and imagination, but Project READ publications are full of suggestions of materials to include. See Section IV of the bibliography for currently available Project READ publications.

Project READ methods can be put to effective use in classrooms of 10 to 15 students. Those who have worked with these methods think that four classes a day should be the most that any teacher should be expected to handle. That would mean from 40 to 60 students could be taught by one teacher in an academic year, many more than a single Laubach teacher could reach unassisted in the same period of time.

Title I (Elementary and Secondary Education Act) Programs in California

Funded by Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), four California adult correctional facilities have achieved remarkable results with augmentation of staff and equipment for adult basic education for prisoners under the age of 21. The program augmentation is sufficient to accelerate learning to a rate of up to four months of work accomplished in one month of attendance. This achievement is not uniform and depends to a large extent on the character of the institution. There is a considerable emphasis on following an exhaustive series of diagnostic tests with carefully individualized instruction. Reproduced in Appendix C are lists of the instructional materials and hardware utilized in these programs.

To sum up, intensive educational programs in which good teachers are given what they need in order to do their best will produce good results, sometimes far exceeding expectations of either the institution officials or the prisoners themselves. For the teacher, the personal satisfaction of having made better things possible for their students is an enviable perquisite of their profession. The satisfaction of the successful student is even more gratifying to witness. A middle-aged income tax violator encountered in an arithmetic class at a Federal prison commented on his absorption in the calculation of percentages as follows: "I always thought that I wasn't made to do this stuff; figuring had to be beyond me. But they suggested that I give it a try while I'm here, and I'm doing it. It's changed my whole outlook." He did not go on to say, nor did we inquire, whether this new found proficiency might have prevented his incarceration in the first place, had it been attained earlier.

Secondary Education

Willingly or not, most children are exposed to education until they graduate from high school. In most communities, they have no other choice except truancy. In our structured society school is the place where anyone under school-leaving age is supposed to be. The dropout soon finds that the world is not ready for him nor is he ready for the world. The work he can get with less than a standard education is menial and irregular. He will have no grasp on any employment allowing job tenure, and no opportunities for advancement in a career. It is a cheerless future that faces those who do not possess our society's minimum credential--the high school diploma. No wonder that so many dropouts arrive in prison. There was no other direction for them to take but to engage in a criminal career--or so it seemed to them.

As with the illiterate who must learn the basics, the more typical prisoner who arrives in the reception center with an intermediate school education--or occasionally more--has his last best chance at an educational advancement. Once he returns to the streets, whatever he is doing--whether it is a new job or the resumption of his interrupted criminal career--he probably won't find the time or recapture the inclination to enroll in adult education classes. If he is to increase his knowledge and competence, he will have no time to spare. The year or two that the average prisoner will have to serve is none too much to devote to intensive academic and vocational education. He should get into school immediately after transfer from reception status or quarantine. That sense of urgency is seldom conveyed in most prisons. Not many prison officials express that view as forcefully as Dr. George Beto, former Director of Corrections in Texas:

> "I don't think you have to prove that education is good. It has intrinsic value. I am persuaded that education changes people . . . Every inmate should . . . get as much education as his mentality can absorb." [12]

While it is a triumph to transfer a functional illiterate into a man or women who can cope with the elements of communication and calculation, there is much more that must be done before the prisoner is ready to compete on even terms with his peers outside. A great many of the functional illiterates who find their way through adult basic education go on to complete work for a high school diploma. They seldom need to be told the objectives of this phase of their education, nor do the officials and teachers responsible for making education available to them. Those objectives are all too obvious; without doubt nearly everyone working in prisons knows them all, almost by rote. Although their significance is generally acknowledged, the makeshift classrooms, the meager libraries, the cramped quarters assigned to education, and the barebones staffing so often seen certainly do not confirm the statements in general circulation about the importance of correctional education. Let us recite here those objectives as they are expressed when administrators and officials exchange philosophies. Secondary education:

- Increases the social and economic competence of the prisoner.
- Provides essential preparation for vocational instruction.
- Prepares the student for postsecondary education.
- Enables the student to understand the social, civic, and economic environment.
- Enhances the capacity to enjoy life and make constructive use of leisure time.

When the "medical model" was supreme in correctional policy-making, and the prisoner was seen as the victim of a social pathology that would respond to psychological intervention, there was less discussion of these statements and less consideration of how the maximum number of prisoners could be given educational programs moving toward these goals. The increased status of correctional education is evident throughout the country, though the increase of enrollment and the augmentation of services handly keeps pace with the rhetoric. There are serious obstacles to the attainment of the full potential of secondary education in prisons. We shall consider one of them now as a prelude to a discussion of models of correctional education administration that may minimize the impediments.

Motivation as an Obstacle to Effective Secondary Education in Prison

Motivation and its maintenance are the inevitable problems in any organized educational effort, whether in the free world or in prisons, whether for children or adults. Most prisoners remember the schoolroom as the site of unrelieved failure and humiliation in childhood. Most will need a lot of reassurance, before they can be convinced that success is conceivable. There will always be some who will see no point in trying.

Nevertheless, few prisoners have to be reminded of the importance of education. They have heard many homilies on the objectives and values of secondary education and on the horizons that will expand for them if they subject themselves to classroom routines again. It is disturbing to find that the gap between the need and its fulfillment stubbornly resists efforts to close it. No one doubts the importance of correctional education; everyone recognizes why it is important, but enrollment lags far behind the number of prisoners who need instruction. According to Bell, 66.4 percent of the prison population surveyed for the National Correctional Education Evaluation Project had not completed high school. Yet at the time of the survey, only 11.6 percent of this population were enrolled in secondary school.[13]

There are many plausible reasons for this discrepancy. Many prisoners are beyond persuasion. We talked to some such prisoners in the course of our site visits. The most compelling reason for nonenrollment was conflict with a paid work program. For a prisoner employed in the Minnesota Free Venture industries, this reason is compelling indeed. A stipend is allowed to a prisoner enrolled in school, but it is a fraction of what he can earn in a prison industry. Faced with such a choice, a prisoner might well choose work instead of a classroom; some will elect to attend night school, but after a full day of work, many will prefer to relax. It is not easy to think of an acceptable rationale for allowing educational stipends that would be competitive with industrial wages, but some consideration might be given to offering good time incentives for completion of a high school curriculum. Released time from industry might also reduce the conflict.

Other prisoners simply want to be left alone. They do not believe that the benefits of prison education would be of any advantage to them, and they do not choose to make the effort to find out whether they might be wrong in this opinion. Several middle-aged prisoners whom we interviewed, men who seemed to be drifters by preference, were frank in stating that education had nothing to offer them in the improvement of their chosen way of life. Probably it is to the mutual advantage of both the counselor and the prisoner himself to desist from efforts to persuade such men to enroll, once it is clear that the lack of interest is grounded on a lifestyle to which education is irrelevant.

Disregarding those who, for good reasons or bad, cannot or will not attend school, the majority of prisoners in any correctional facility do wish to learn. Given the opportunity and some encouragement, they will often surprise themselves by their accomplishments. Unfortunately, what happens to too many prisoners is a placement on a waiting list after they leave the reception center. That often means a long enough stint of idleness to habituate them to indolence. In a prison in which the majority of inmates are chronically and entirely unemployed, many will succumb to the prevailing pattern of living rather than join the minority of prisoners who are active.

The General Educational Development Examination

One powerful incentive that leads many prisoners to take secondary education seriously is the prospect of taking and passing the General Educational Development Examination, or the "GED" as it is universally designated, for a high school equivalency diploma. Nearly every prison system in the country with a program of secondary education uses the GED as the main target for its high school curriculum. The diploma at the end is a tangible sign of achievement, and it has taken on a compelling mystique. Preparation for the GED examination constitutes a large share of the correctional education effort, perhaps the lion's share.

The GED was developed in 1942 by the armed forces as a means of accelerating the educational process for servicemen and women returning to civilian life after the interruption in their education caused by enlistment. It is in wide use in civilian school systems for accrediting adults who have not completed high school and for one reason or another prefer not to enroll in a fulltime curriculum.

The examination itself is a formidable experience. It includes five subject areas--reading skills, writing skills, social studies, science, and mathematics. It takes six hours to finish. Although its widespread use in prison education has involved thousands of inmates, their numbers constitute a fraction of all the Americans who have profited from the opportunity it presents.

For the prisoner considering his inadequacies and the fastest possible means of erasing them, the GED is a wonderful way to wipe out the stigma of a deficient education. Once that examination has been passed, there is a certificate to show that the prisoner is as well educated as the next high school graduate, and therefore entitled to the not inconsiderable prerogatives attached to that credential. Many job applications call for high school graduation as one of the minimum qualifications. Most community colleges and some universities will accept students with nothing more to show for their preparation than this certificate. Those who have it pass the screen; those who do not are doomed to life in America's underclass, deprived of access to opportunities. Prisoners know this fact of society. Their eagerness to enroll for GED preparation is obviously the result of a powerful motivation.

Whether or not the certificate of high school equivalency is used as a foundation for admission to better chances in life, (it is likely that for many the race is its own reward), there is the rare and sweet experience of success that comes with the satisfactory completion of the examination. Few prisoners are accustomed to success at anything they try. The chance to vary that doomed pattern is not to be dismissed as unimportant. The prospect of a success gets the prisoner back into school; the success itself will shake a lifelong conviction that failure is his inevitable lot.

No correctional teacher we talked to was inclined to make light of the value of success on the GED. On the contrary, we were repeatedly told that care was to be taken to see to it that nobody took the examination who had the slightest chance of failure. Students who were not sure-fire prospects to pass were told to defer the examination until they could be certain of passing with flying colors.

So much for the impressive positive side of the GED model of secondary education. Not everyone agrees that the benefits of the GED are unmixed with disadvantages. Skeptics point to its similarity to a cram course in which students' heads are packed with as much information as they can retain until the crucial day of testing. Such critics argue that the GED is not really an educational experience in which the objective is to learn subject matter for permanent use. It is one thing to know for a few days how to calculate a square root; it is quite another to know what to do with it when the calculation is done. These critics think that school time is better spent on intensive education for limited but specific objectives designed to increase usable knowledge. It is also suggested that the emphasis on passing examinations has negative implications for the teachers as well as the students. For example, to stack the examination process to assure that everybody passes certainly prevents the disappointment of failure for the student, but it also makes the teaching staff look unnaturally effective. A teacher whose students never fail may gain a reputation that he does not deserve. It is suggested by some educationists that the prisoner/student should at least be allowed to take a trial examination on the assumption that he might surprise himself and his teacher by passing; at the worse he would find out what his weaknesses were. A half-length GED test, available from the GED Testing Service can be used as a pre-test to determine the student's readiness to take the full GED. Another way of assessing readiness is a score of at least 9.0 on the Stanford Achievement Test.[14]

For the present, critics of the GED will not have their way. Secondary education teaching staffs in prisons throughout the country are accustomed to the GED as a motivator and to the routines of instruction that it requires. Time is short for most prisoners, if only because there are seldom enough places in school to accommodate all who need them. Instead of a formal high school program which, for even the most diligent prisoners would take more than a year of concentrated effort, a GED program can hustle the prisoner through an interesting and lively experience that is rather like training for an athletic event. Its completion attests to an application to work and a willingness to stick to a task until it is done. Its possession establishes eligibility for vocational training in a skilled trade or for entrance into an occupational career that requires it. For these highly pragmatic reasons, no one can dispute its considerable value to a young man or woman whose floundering into crime has been partly the result of an unacceptably low level of personal competence.

In the absence of national statistics on correctional education, no one can say how many prisoners throughout the country manage to negotiate the long course between semiliteracy at best and a high school diploma. We cannot be sure that these numbers are increasing. No one even knows how many prisoners are even capable of finishing an authentic high school curriculum, although we firmly believe that the majority can. What is certain is that far more could and should be working toward that goal. To make its achievement possible is essential to the transformation of criminals into citizens. In the process, the prison itself will be transformed from a jungle into a community.

Postsecondary Education

Crime has always propelled into prison a scattering of men and women whose retained educational level is high school completion or better. For years it was common for such prisoners to engage in correspondence courses, motivated as they were to keep their minds active and to escape from boredom of endless inactivity. Although their numbers are small, programs for their organized instruction have been developing in most prison systems. Perhaps the first such program was a collaboration between the Southern Illinois University and the Menard Correctional Center, which has been described by Morris in an account of its early days.[15] The model of a joint venture between a community college or university and a prison has been followed in most states that have undertaken such programs, usually with support from Federal student assistance programs and State and local funding.

The transition from "cell courses" (which are still widely used), to full-time higher education in prisons has had the benefit of support and ideas generated by a number of resourceful planners. In 1966 the Washington-based Institute for Policy Studies received a grant from the Ford Foundation to organize an experimental program at San Quentin Prison to explore the feasibility of organized college level instruction in maximum security conditions. Stuart N. Adams, widely known research sociologist, was named to conduct the experiment. His survey of prisoner capabilities and interests established that there were enough interested and qualified prisoners to justify the attempt. A teaching staff was recruited from the University of California and from a nearby community college, but at the time no formal arrangements were made with either of these institutions. Adams has summarized the growth of postsecondary achievements in a report which contain ideas of continuing interest.[16]

The lasting significance of the San Quentin Prison College was the impetus it gave to Thomas Gaddis and his colleagues toward the development of Project NewGate with support from the Office of Economic Opportunity. The checkered but impressive history of this project has been candidly narrated by Seashore and Haberfeld in a volume notable for identifying and accounting of failures as well as describing NewGate's successes.[17] What NewGate did for American penology was to institutionalize postsecondary education as an accepted phase of a prison's program of rehabilitation. It will be a long time, if ever, before all prisons offer postsecondary education, but most large systems have at least one or two institutions in which such programs are available and pursued.

In offering postsecondary education, a prison system makes advanced training a symbol of its commitment to go all the way with offenders in re-equipping them for an honest and productive living. There is a special difference between postsecondary education and the less advanced programs. For prisoners engaged in adult basic education or working toward a GED diploma, what is learned is essentially remedial; the gap in interrupted schooling is filled, and usually to considerable advantage. But the content taught consists of knowledge and skills that most people learn as children. In postsecondary education, what is learned is a part--though a very modest part--of that vast body of knowledge reserved for higher education. The prisoner is learning while incarcerated what adults in free society are learning at universities and colleges. He is not merely catching up on what he missed as a child.

It is at this point that trouble sometimes begins. For nearly everyone in free society these days, a college education is a privilege for which someone has to make sacrifices, whether it is the student himself who is earning his way through college, or his parents, or contributors to scholarship funds or, in most cases, the taxpayer. For many citizens, including most prison employees, such sacrifices are out of the question. Generally, they accept the idea that a prisoner must learn to read and write if he can, and that the institution should help him to do so. They can also accept the notion of remedial learning at the high school level; most of them are high school graduates themselves. But a college education is beyond the means of many guards and tradesmen to provide for either themselves or their sons and daughters. The idea that one way of getting a college degree is to break the law and come to prison seems an injustice to be resented. It is not surprising to hear complaints from prison educators that some guards do all they can to make class attendance difficult for prisoners in advanced courses. We heard stories of attempts to disrupt educational programs that ranged from harassing sarcasm, to time-wasting inspection of school materials, to refusal to pass inmates from housing units to classrooms.

Deplorable as such incidents certainly are, to denounce their perpetrators is not to solve the problem. A prison system that is not solicitous of its employees' aspirations toward self-improvement will run into difficulties in enlisting the cooperation of staff in carrying out programs to help the prisoner help himself. Some prisons are able to provide tuition assistance to employees to attend classes provided for prisoners and to arrange for college credits for successful completion, as at the Vienna Correctional Center in Illinois, mentioned in Chapter I. Neither of these expedients will be effective with every resentful guard, but they may be expected to dilute hostility to the program. What is certain is that the obstruction by the staff will not disappear by ignoring it.

In earlier sections of this chapter we noted that both adult basic education and secondary instruction require sensitive and constructive understanding that the student to be taught is not a child or an adolescent preparing for adult life still years ahead; he is an adult who brings a lifetime of experience with him into the classroom and will use what he learns almost as soon as he learns it. For the student in the postsecondary classes in prison, some of the expectations still apply. He will be of an age when he has seen much of life, often much more than a college student outside the prison, and brings what he learns to class. He usually will expect to apply what he has learned in class to the problems of his future career or, in some branches of learning, to his own problems as a human being in great trouble.

These resemblances to other prisoner/learners are not much help in dealing with the special situation of the postsecondary student. In some prisons he will attend school all day; in most prisons he will have some allowance made for the longer hours that college students have to observe if they are to keep up with their studies. The very fact that they are in college establishes them as members of an elite in the prison community, enjoying opportunities beyond the range of most prisoners and apparently allowed some special privileges in the bargain. This tendency toward a special status is accentuated by the professional opinion of many prison educators that postsecondary prisoner/students should be housed in units set aside for them. The organization of such a unit presents obvious problems. To create a college environment calls for a special community to which no one is admitted without credentials that establish eligibility to a superior status. The attributes that confer such eligibility on a prisoner are not those that will generally endear him to guards or fellow prisoners not so endowed. In a sensitive account of their experiences with Project NewGate in Minnesota's reformatory at St. Cloud, Clendenen and his colleagues cite the hostility of the ineligible prisoners as one of the principal obstacles to its success:

> "A factor that has blocked participation in NewGate is the inmate 'bully system,' which grants the toughest, coldest, hardest prisoner prestige and power. An inmate who sides with society or the administration or who takes part in a program such as NewGate subjects himself to the suspicion of other inmates, to the risk of being condemned as a 'snitch,' or even to physical harm. The initiators of NewGate had to confront this problem during the program's first year at the reformatory, for in the culture of hostility, suspicion, and destructiveness, they were introducing a proposal for mutual trust and caring."[18]

Like so many other aspects of the human condition, postsecondary education cannot be entirely rescued from implications of unfairness. It will help to make sure that no participant enjoys privileges that are not essential to his educational success. Rules should be strictly enforced; class attendance should be required and thorough preparation should be expected. Where a student fails because of lack of application, some provision must be made for assignment to a probationary status; eventual disqualification should be the result of continued unsatisfactory performance. Enrollment in a prison college is unavoidably a comparatively pleasant removal from the routine of the prison main line. It should be clear to all concerned that the price for that removal is hard work. Our observation has been that most prisoners assigned to such programs do not need to be told how lucky they are.

There is a special advantage that the prison college enjoys which is not generally to be found on university campuses. Enrollment is necessarily small, and the student body is presumably well-motivated. Large lecture courses are not possible, nor is there the impersonality of faculty-student relations that prevails at most universities. The student can expect--and should have--a great deal of individual attention. Under the contracts set up with some service-providing universities at some prisons, instruction can be at the tutorial level that is expected at elite universities offering instruction for the exceptionally talented student. Such an allowance may seem outrageous to those who begrudge the indulgence of any prisoner in postsecondary education under any conditions. The only possible response to this complaint calls for the critic to recognize that the tasks of higher learning must be onerous if they are to be worth undertaking at all, whether at a famous university or in a prison which may be equally famous but not for advanced education. Individual guidance in tutorial sessions with an instructor does not merely address the subject matter to be taught; more important, it also instructs the student, unaccustomed to the effort required in college-level studies, in the habits of mind and application necessary for success in the tasks of higher learning. Certainly if postsecondary education is to have any real value for the prisoner/student, he must acquire the working habits of a purposeful student if he is to survive when he goes on to a university after release.

That was the goal of Project NewGate. It continues to be the aim of postsecondary education in prison to qualify the student for transfer to a regular college after release. Prison college is a valuable experience in itself for those who are fortunate enough to be eligible, but it should be more than a time-filler, a respite from the tedium of empty days. Ideally, prison college should transfer the misfortune of a prison commitment into an opportunity to improve the offender's life-chances so substantially that a return to crime would become improbable.

The New Educational Technology: Instructional Television (ITV)

Those who think that a supply of textbooks, blackboards and chalk are enough to equip a classroom have not visited a contemporary school. The advent of television and the computer, and even the conquest of space have made possible more startling innovations in methods of instruction than the world has seen since the invention of the printing press. So new to educators are the inventions we are about to discuss that no one is sure about the best ways to put them to use. Innovations have come so thick and fast that nothing is standardized because still more innovations must be in the offing.

The first applicable invention was television, some possibilities of which have been seen from the first. To have a distinguished authority or a gifted teacher appear on a television screen for a lecture, or a discussion with students appearing on the screen with him, has for long been a good way to enhance instruction. It has become even more valuable with the availability of videotapes that can be bought for a school library. Instructional television (ITV) does not supplant the teacher, but it does give him assistance with the essential subject matter. Where instruction is needed on which no available teacher is trained, ITV can be the primary teaching source.

For the correctional educator there are some problems in the use of ITV, especially at the adult basic education level. Most ITV materials are developed for the public schools; charming though the Sesame Street approach to elementary education is, it does not enthrall the adult learner as it does the child in the primary grades. Some more appropriate materials are coming on the market and it must be expected that more are on the way. Some of the more affluent correctional systems are experimenting with their own ITV productions which, it must be supposed, will eventually become available for general use. The cost of equipment is considerable, and it is not to be expected that its purchase will in any way reduce personnel costs. The guest teacher on the cathode ray tube cannot discuss his materials directly with the students listening to him, nor can he answer questions or conduct a quiz to see how much has been learned. The teacher is still essential in the classroom, but his work may be made much more effective with outside help. Where no teacher at all is available, ITV can serve some limited purposes of instruction on topics of general interest, especially in social education. Programs on consumer economics, job application strategies or criminal law principles and procedures can be presented for group discussion by a parole officer or members of the counseling staff. No attempt should be made to use ITV for academic instruction without a qualified teacher in charge.[19]

The future of ITV in correctional education may become even brighter by the spread of satellite technology. Familiar to every viewer of televised newscasts, the use of satellites makes possible the transmission of educational programs of high quality and specialization over very wide areas. Some thought has been given to the creation of a national correctional education program, administered by the American Correctional Association or some other central coordinator, which would have the capability of bringing a variety of programs designed specially for inmates of prisons and youth training schools. The use of satelite technology has already been successfully explored in experiments designed for schools and community colleges in the free society, and for training of correctional personnel. Suggested plans for the application of this technology to prison education have been outlined in detail, but no actual implementation has yet been undertaken.[20]

The New Technology: Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI)

It does not depreciate the value of ITV to say that even in its most futuristic uses it is limited to extending the conventional modes of instruction. The fascinating lecture or the exciting laboratory demonstration, seen on a television screen, are superior uses of conventional methods. Whether the lecture is in a university classroom or on a cathode ray tube, it is still a lecture. Even when technology makes possible questions and interaction between lecturer and student, as is technically feasible now, ITV only enhances conventional classroom methods.

Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) promises and already delivers a transformation of the educational process. This product of the computer revolution is still in its infancy. It would not have been conceivable without the accumulating experience of the computer industry in organizing and communicating huge amounts of knowledge with astonishing speed and versatility. Nor would CAI be conceivable without the contributions of modern learning theory, especially the behavioral concepts of B. F. Skinner.[21] This is not the place to attempt a summary of an elaborate scientific theoretical development. What is essential to keep in mind is the concept of incremental learning, in which small bits of information are presented, item by item, to the learner, each building on what he has learned before, and each presented in such a way that it can be related to future items yet to be presented. The learner is never faced with sorting out knowledge for himself; that has already been done for him by the program. As he responds to the information presented and to the questions based on each item, he is informed immediately if he has the correct answer, thereby "reinforced" by this small success. If the answer is wrong, the program can so indicate and suggest the basis of the error.

All this was and still is available in programmed instruction books and teaching machines which have been in use in schools, especially prison schools, for many years. Programmed instruction has demonstrated its effectiveness both in public schools and in the different educational tasks of remedial education for adults.

New in the mid-seventies was the advent of the computer to the educational process. Some of the applications of the computer to education were mechanical and merely eased some of the drudgery of scoring tests and maintaining school records. Some services provide testing programs of considerable sophistication, combined with conventional materials to which the testing is keyed. Much of the computerized educational programs used in prisons now are of this variety, and there are a considerable number of them on the market. These systems have a number of advantages over traditional examining methods. Not only do they inform the student that he has the right answer—if he has—but they keep score on his progress. When the wrong answer is given, an explanation of the problem and the reason for error may be returned, with encouragement to try again. Some systems challenge the bright learner with variations of the problem to which he has answered correctly, and some are sensitive enough to the kinds of answers they receive to be able to sort out the students who need more explanation from those who can be given more difficult material.

The most advanced and versatile CAI system now in use is PLATO VII, a computerized instructional program that takes the learner from an assessment of his needs through programmed instruction, drill and practice, and examination. It was developed in a collaboration between the University of Illinois at Urbana and the Control Data Corporation, and uses the equipment manufactured by the latter. It is capable of providing instruction from the latter phases of primary education through graduate school and professional refresher courses. PLATO (Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations) contains about 100,000 hours of instructional material and continues to expand with the varied demands of the educational public.

It is an expensive service. While prison educators who use it are enthusiastic about its immediate and positive impact on students, no independent cost-effectiveness studies have been done. Nevertheless, because it is the most complete system of CAI so far developed, some account of its organization is in order. It will be seen that valuable systems of CAI are available or can be locally developed at much less cost, but also with much less versatility and sophistication.

Any system like PLATO consists of five components:

1. A Central Processing Unit (CPU) in which programs are stored and to which terminals are connected for student access. In the case of PLATO the CPU is a very large computer (CYBER 170) maintained by the Control Data Corporation at five strategic locations throughout the country. For less elaborate CAI services the CPU can be leased or purchased and located on the premises or shared with other facilities.

2. The student terminals. These are cathode ray tubes with typing attachments by which students can conduct "dialogues" with the PLATO CPU. Each PLATO CPU can accommodate up to 1,200 terminals on a time-sharing basis, each terminal with access to instructional material selected by the student with guidance from the teacher. So far as the student is concerned, the terminal is PLATO--or whatever CAI system is in use.

3. The software system. This is the programming operation that gets the teaching material from the CPU to the terminal in the format that makes possible the dialogue between the student and PLATO in a manner that is individualized, prescriptive, and data-collecting.

4. The courseware. These are the lessons organized into courses and fed into the computer. In the case of PLATO, courseware consists of 100,000 hours of instruction in materials ranging from elementary reading and arithmetic to advanced medical and legal education. Courseware is contracted for by the school for specific instructional material in the case of PLATO. For the less expensive CAI systems, much less elaborate courseware will be available. Some of the larger prison school systems have designed their own courses, using CPU's purchased or leased.

Costs: The costs of PLATO exceed by a large margin the simpler systems that can be put into use where the requirements do not call for as much versatility or as elaborate courseware as PLATO affords. In California, the California Men's Colony leases 8 terminals at an annual cost of $38,000 per year, a contract that provides adult basic education material for about 70 students in the educational program of that facility. This lease provides for training of personnel in management of the PLATO system, access to the Basic Skills package on the CPU and servicing and maintenance of the terminals.

The Minnesota Department of Corrections maintains five PLATO terminals, distributed among three facilities at a cost of $840 per month per terminal--a total cost of about $50,000 a year. In addition, the department has three smaller computer services, which are leased at far less cost. APPLE II (no acronym) is obtained at a cost of $3,000 per year per terminal. This and the other systems leased are primarily useful for drill and practice, whereas PLATO is intended to provide a complete educational experience.

The Windham School District in Texas (to be described in Chapter III) has a self-contained CAI system, consisting of two large CPU's purchased for $30,000. To the CPU's 20 terminals are attached on lease at an annual cost of $12,240. Costs of maintenance and curriculum bring the total annual cost of the system to about $45,000 per year. The system covers adult basic education and a GED program. It keeps records, provides for programmed instruction, individualizes the student so that his progress can be monitored and tests him at appropriate intervals.

Administration and use: Our observations and inquiries lead us to conclude that as yet there is no consensus among correctional educators as to the best use of CAI. There is general agreement that once a student has learned how to use the system it's more of a problem to get him to yield his place to another than it is to keep up his interest. In California, the main use of PLATO has been with reluctant learners--those numerous prisoners who are repelled by the prospect of returning to a classroom but who are happy with the solitary education provided by communing with a cathode ray tube. At the California Men's Colony PLATO is in use for up to 16 hours a day with students of this kind, but as yet the system offers only adult basic education from the third through the eighth grade. In this way, up to 90 students a day can be given accelerated basic education.

In the Minnesota Department of Corrections, PLATO covers the entire educational spectrum from about the fourth grade through the GED. So far, PLATO has not developed a specific GED program, but the high school materials available are useful for this purpose. Late in 1980 or early in 1981 PLATO expects to have a specific GED program which will even administer the examination.

The student and CAI: As we have had occasion to say in earlier sections, most prisoners have unhappy recollections of the classroom as the scene of failure and humiliation. As adults, they can sometimes be induced to return, if only to escape the monotony of idleness. Many refuse to return even for a trial, but CAI does present them with an option that makes the resumption of education a bearable prospect. The advantages of CAI for such prisoners are powerful and obvious. They learn at their own speed, neither compelled to keep pace with the brilliant nor forced to retard their speed for those who are slow. Working alone in a carrel with a computer terminal, their mistakes and their occasional incomprehension are between them and the equipment, never to be exposed to peers and never the object of a teacher's impatience.

There is also the fascination of the process itself. To find that one can operate complex and obviously sophisticated machinery--even if one does not begin to understand how it works--is clearly an exciting experience for most prisoners. The resemblance to a game is inescapable and, indeed, many of the learning sequences are presented as games. It has been argued by some earlier writers, notably Roberts and Coffey,[22] that to avoid satiation, time at the terminal should be limited to units of 30 minutes. Although this limit may be necessary because of the number of students to be scheduled, none of the educational supervisors with whom CAI was discussed thought that there was any evidence that satiation was a problem. On the contrary, as one supervisor put it, "Once they've got the hang of it, it's hard to drive them away." Stories are told, probably apocryphally, of prisoners who have broken into educational facilities so as to get more time on CAI. However that may be, it is certain that commitment to CAI comes early and is not shaken by extended use.

For the student who is at the most basic level of primary education, i.e., functioning below the fourth grade level, CAI is not well suited in its present state. Although excellent basic skills program modules are available, they work best with the minimum literacy to be expected of the fourth grade student, at least. Continuing work is under way on the problem of literacy training; it is not thought to be inherently an insoluble problem, but in the present state of CAI other methods will be needed to prepare the student for it.

The teacher and CAI: There can be no question but that CAI in any form will change the role of the teacher. Where the system consists of drill, practice and examination, it will relieve him of much of the drudgery of his profession; no one really likes the mechanical process of scoring a multiple choice test, or conducting a drill in arithmetic, especially when these tasks have to be done after hours. But where a program is like PLATO or approaches that level of comprehensiveness, many teachers wonder whether it may not be driving them into obsolescence.

This concern is perhaps justified to some extent; it is at least true that the teacher's continuing classroom duties must be meshed with his responsibility for advising the student about appropriate modules, reviewing progress of instruction, and helping to choose continuations. Where CAI is well-established, the teacher is busy as ever, and needed in about the same numbers. There are some situations in which classroom work is eliminated--as in the case of adult basic education in California--but the prevailing opinion is that classroom discussion of what has been learned and its interpretation is essential, especially at the secondary level and above.

Effectiveness: The question of the effectiveness of CAI as compared with more conventional methods of instruction is difficult to answer at this time. Vendors will present glowing accounts of learning accomplishments that seem nothing short of miraculous. Objective research done independently of the vendor or the user in the correctional setting does not seem to have been undertaken. It is credible that students exposed to CAI tend to learn somewhat faster and sometimes to perform better on examination than students going through conventional instruction. No one has assessed their retention of what they have learned after the lapse of months or years.

Under the circumstances, the comparative values of different modes of CAI are difficult to assess. Whether PLATO and some of its comparably expensive equivalents are worth the difference from cheaper and less complex versions of CAI is still to be authoritatively decided. It is probable that costs, in real terms, will come down to an extent, though it is improbable that a price reduction comparable to that experienced with pocket calculators will take place. This sanquine prospect, held out by Roberts and Coffey,[23] is not even in sight. On the contrary, costs are now tending to increase slightly, as the equipment adds versatility in software and comprehensiveness in courseware.

Under the circumstances that now prevail, CAI should be in the active use of any correctional education program that can afford it. It is not indispensable. The old model of the teacher in the classroom is still effective--if the teacher knows his job and is not burdened with impossible workloads. It can become a more creative occupation, and it can reach men and women who could not readily be reached by conventional means,if to that old model CAI can be added.

The acquisition of a system is a decision that should be made by well informed and trained educational personnel. Because of the varied array of equipment to decide about, because of the many different purposes that can be served, and the differing needs of the population to be instructed, these decisions have to depend on the advice of personnel capable of comparing costs in terms of the numbers of people who can be usefully reached by different CAI systems, given the wide differentiation of educational needs in any correctional population. If the cost of the most expensive systems is beyond any hope of fiscal approval, smaller investments in less expensive equipment may be justified. If resources suffice for really complex systems, there must still be an estimate as to whether the population to be served is large enough and sufficiently in need of CAI to require such an investment. Finally, whatever the decision, the purchaser or lessee should continuously monitor the use of the system in terms of the cost per student contact hour, the recorded achievement of the students, and the realization of any assumptions that were made at the time of acquisition.

The Administrator and Prison Education:

In this chapter, we have sketched the concepts and programs of academic education in prison, as we have seen it reflected in our site visits, the responses to our questionnaires, and in the literature. There is much diversity of practice in spite of the unanimity on educational doctrine. The general agreement on the essential issues of aims, methods, and procedures contrasts with performance that varies from nominal or perfunctory to zealously professional. Given good management and able teachers, remarkable results are achieved in conditions that seem hopelessly adverse.

Consider, for example, our site-visit to the Penitentiary of New Mexico at Santa Fe, which took place about a month before the catastrophic riot early in 1980. Out of a population of 1,150, 535 were enrolled in ABE/GED programs, each attending school for half a day. Another 300 were pursuing postsecondary education administered by the College of Santa Fe. A vocational education program claimed 180 trainees. The staff consisted of four administrative personnel, a counselor, eight fulltime teachers and four part-time teachers for the ABE/GED program, to which there were added 14 instructors for the postsecondary program.

Custodial staff was paid at salaries beginning at $700 a month, and it is not surprising that there were numerous vacancies. Both teachers and students asserted that the senior uniformed staff was hostile to the entire educational program, especially to the postsecondary phases. Nevertheless, in spite of harassment, obstructiveness, and inefficiency, enrollment was high, and very few of those enrolled dropped out of school for any reason. About 50 percent of those participating in the general education program managed to complete the GED, and about 40 of the postsecondary students were awarded the Associate of Arts degree. The site-visitor noted the serious obstacles to constructive programming, although he had no inkling of the diaster that was about to occur, and observed, "It is a good program, and the fact that it works in a negative setting may be all the justification it requires."

The precarious survival of a program about which the prisoners enrolled were generally enthusiastic may be partly explained by the fact that it was the only constructive activity open to many inmates. However, that so many stayed the course to pass a fairly stiff GED examination indicates that a good teaching staff had been recruited and held together by educational administrators who saw what was needed and managed to do it. Education is only one element of a prison program. Obviously it was not enough to prevent the disaster that resulted in national notoriety, but it remains as a solid building block for the restoration of normal programming at Santa Fe.

But even with the unfavorable conditions reported by our colleague, the New Mexico prison education program compared favorably with national averages. Bell and his associates in the National Correctional Education EvaluationProject reported that the average number of inmates enrolled in the prisons surveyed was 304.[24] The prisoners enrolled in any kind of education program constituted only a third of the total population. Considering that only 26 percent of the nation's convicts are high school graduates, American correctional institutions are far from achieving one of the few defined and measurable goals available to their administration.[25] The capability for a major and successful commitment to adult education in prisons has been convincingly demonstrated as well within the boundaries of what is possible for even the least affluent system.

That the actual situation falls so far short of what it might be must be attributed to many factors. Using the methods we have described, even the most reluctant learners manage to become students in spite of their forebodings. Good teachers are available as never before; many supervisors commented on the easing of recruitment that resulted from the decline of public school enrollment. What is lacking is the active interest and vigorous support of correctional administrators who do not see to it that good teachers are brought into their prisons and that they are given the supplies and technology that can produce the results to which all give lip service. The era is long past when correctional education could consist of a literate prisoner who, without any other qualification, was assigned to teach the illiterate, using hand-me-down primers from the public schools. Everyone knows that the capability of prison education is far beyond this level of performance. The fault is not in the inadequacies of the profession; where education falls short of its potentiality, the blame is squarely on the administrator who does not see to it that staff is fully supportive throughout the system and that adequate funds are requested, justified, and obtained from the varied sources available to them. In the next chapter, we shall review the resources that administrators can use to enable teachers to do as they know how.

FOOTNOTES

1. Malcolm S. Knowles, The Modern Practice of Adult Education (New York: Association Press, 1970), pp. 39-49.

2. Janet J. Carsetti, Motivational Activities for Reluctant Readers (Silver Spring, Maryland: READ, Inc.,), p. 10.

3. University of Texas at Austin, Final Report: The Adult Performance Level Study (Austin, Texas: University of Texas, 1977), pp. 16-17.

4. Adult APL Survey. User's Guide, (Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1976), p. 1.

5. Final Report: The Adult Performance Level Study, p. A2-A8.

6. Ibid., p. A6-A7.

7. See, for example, ABC's of APL: An Annotated Bibliography of Materials Related to the APL General Knowledge Area (Austin, Texas: University of Texas, n.d.)

8. While Appendix C is representative of tests in general use, we make no claims that it is an exhuastive list or that any judgment is indicated as to comparative value.

9. See Janet K. Carsetti, Literacy: Problems and Solutions. A Resource Handbook for Correctional Educators (Washington, D. C.: The American Bar Association, Clearinghouse for Offender Literacy Programs, 1975); Rita M. Berman (Wirtz), "Bibliography of Relevant Courseware" (Los Angeles: University of Southern California, College of Continuing Education Programs in Corrections, 1978, mimeographed); T. A. Ryan et al., Model of Adult Basic Education in Corrections (Honolulu, Hawaii, University of Hawaii, 1975). The latter citation contains a list of bibliographies of adult basic education materials.

10. See Laubach Literacy International. New Readers Press 1979-80 Catalog (Syracuse, New York: 1979.)

11. In Ivan Scheier and Judith Berry, Guidelines and Standards for the Use of Volunteers in Correctional Programs (Boulder, Colorado: National Information Center on Volunteers in Courts, 1972), the authors report that their study showed tutoring was the most frequently cited function of volunteers in corrections.

12. The Houston Post, p. 27C, 20 December 1979.

13. Raymond Bell et al., Correctional Education Programs for Inmates: a Synthesis and Assessment (Bethelem, Pennsylvania: National Correctional Education Project, School of Education, Lehigh University, August 1977), p. 129.

14. See M. R. Watson and E. S. Stump, "Predicting the General Education Development Test Score," Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 34, no. 1 (1974), pp. 8-10. The authors suggest that the Cowles Diagnostic Test, because it is short and structured as a minature GED test, may be the best instrument to use in predicting GED success.

15. Delyte W. Morris, "The University's Role in Prison Education," in Readings in Prison Education, ed. Albert R. Roberts (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1974), pp. 14-38.

16. Stuart N. Adams, "Learning behind Bars," Change, vol. 5, no. 9 (1973), pp. 45-50.

17. Marjorie J. Seashore and Steven Haberfeld, with John Irwin and Keith Baker, Prisoner Education: Project NewGate and Other College Programs (New York: Praeger, 1976).

18. Richard J. Clendenen, John R. Ellingston, Ronald J. Severson, "Project NewGate: the First Five Years," Crime and Delinquency, vol. 25, no. 1 (1979), pp. 55-64.

19. See Albert R. Roberts and Osa D. Coffey, A State of the Art Survey for A Correctional Education Network (College Park, Maryland: American Correctional Association, 1976), pp. 43-104. Details contained in this publication include the costs of equipment, the special features of the most widely used models, and a full discussion of the application of ITV in the prison school.

20. Ibid., pp. 114-138. These authors draw extensively from an exploratory study in John E. Walkmeyer, Jr., et al., Market Scenarios and Alternative Administrative Frameworks for the U. S. Educational Satellite Systems. Memorandum No. CG-75/2 (St. Louis, Missouri: Center for Development Technology, Washington University, 1975).

21. B. F. Skinner, Science and Human Behavior (New York: Macmillan, 1953); B. F. Skinner and Charles B. Forster, Schedules of Reinforcement (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957).

22. Roberts and Coffey, A State of the Art, p. 145.

23. Ibid., p. 174.

24. National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, Correctional Education Programs for Inmates. National Evaluation Program, Phase I, by Raymond Bell et al. (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office. Stock No. 281-3801/1608. June, 1979), p. 18.

25. National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service, U. S. Department of Justice, Profile of State Prison Inmates: Sociodemographic Findings from the 1974 Survey of Inmates of State Correctional Facilities. (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office. Stock No. 027-000-00852-6. August, 1979).

CHAPTER III: DELIVERING EDUCATION TO THE PRISONER

A System to Support Practice

The combination of good teaching and advanced technology can involve almost any prisoner in self-improvement. The prisoner will not benefit from this combination unless it is an existing service, readily accessible to him in the prison where he is locked up. The delivery of this program depends on measures taken to assure a system to support the service. In this chapter we shall outline the general structure of a prison education system. We will begin with a consideration of the administrative options for the management and control of the system. We will then discuss the assessment of needs whereby the program can be designed to meet the actual requirements of the prison population. The day to day management of prison education will then be described. We will outline the inducements that may incline prisoners to try education once again, even though experience may tell them--incorrectly we believe--that it will be of no use. Finally, we shall try to make sense out of the controversies about the evaluation of prison treatment programs so far as evaluation relates to correctional education. In short, this is a chapter about the administration of prison education.

Administrators are fond of saying that theirs is the art of making things happen. As to correctional education, much of that art must be delegated to the professional educational supervisor. Only he can be expected to decide on the qualifications of teachers to be hired, the relative suitability of texts to be used, or the proportion of the educational budget that should be allocated to Computer Assisted Instruction. His superior, the warden, has a general responsibility for assuring that education can take place in his facility. To carry out that responsibility, the warden must have an understanding of the basis for the supervisor's plans, and he must make decisions of his own as to how he can assure their support. A legislative appropriation must be requested and justified. Federal grants must be proposed, negotiated and re-negotiated. Evaluations of the program must be provided for and, when they are completed, they must be understood so that the warden can take whatever steps may be indicated to take further advantage of the program's strengths and to correct its weaknesses. Most important of all, the success of the educational undertaking in the prison must largely depend on the warden's active and informed support.

A prison is not an educational institution, and no one denies that security measures must take precedence over the educational programs. Still, education is one of the very few constructive activities that a correctional system can provide for. The benefits of a good education to the individual prisoner are great. The benefits of a good educational system to the prison itself are comparable. Prisoners who are eagerly engaged in learning are not likely to be engaged in exploitation of their fellow prisoners.

We repeat these elementary truths, not because they are not well known to prison administrators everywhere, but to remind the reader of the priorities that should prevail on behalf of correctional education. Too often they are forgotten. Too many wardens ignore the educational program entirely and are not seen in the prison school building from one end of the week to another. Too many wardens do not even know that their captains allow and sometimes encourage guards to obstruct the educational program by impeding access to the school facilities, deriding those who participate, and even confiscating books and notes. Too many wardens, justifiably concerned about the inadequacies of the uniformed staff and the need for more pay and better training to assure better quality and lower turnover, cannot divert their attention to the real and serious problems of the prison educator. For such wardens the prison educator is a concessionaire operating within their domain by sufferance, not an integral and essential feature of daily prison life. In such a situation, the rare combination of zeal and talent may be enough to meet the challenge of official indifference--and we have seen instances of such unnecessary triumph over the tunnel-vision of some correctional administrators. Where that is the case, the observer can only wonder how much more effective the program might be with the support of a warden whose objective it is to see that every prisoner is enrolled in some class at some time during the day. We have also seen such wardens; their shocked dismay at the occasional refusal of a prisoner to sign up for school speaks for itself.

These are times when confidence in the idea of rehabilitation is at a low ebb. Again and again the public and its representatives in Congress and the State legislatures have heard that "nothing works." This absurd over-simplification is perfectly true if nothing is tried. It is always difficult to determine in any setting whether a psychological treatment is effective. But there is no mystery about measuring the results of the educational process. It works for nearly everybody, inside of prison or out, if it is competently applied by people who know and care about what they are doing. This is a chapter about how a prison administrator can go about making the connections between such people and the prisoners who need their help.

The Organizational Superstructure

American schools are administered by school districts. Some are immense, with hundreds of millions of dollars spent annually on the instruction of many thousands of children. Some are tiny, charged only with the affairs of one small school far out in the countryside. Every school system, large or small, is intended to carry out specific tasks for the schools it manages, controls, and serves. Originally, school districts raised all the money for the support of its schools from local taxes. That is still a significant source of support, but as education has become more costly and local tax bases have become more resistant to increased rates, states, and more recently the Federal government, have created elaborate systems for the supplementation of taxes.

In many states, school law allows and even encourages school districts adjacent to a prison to contract with prison authorities to provide educational services. In California, where local school districts provide most of the educational services, there is considerable variation from institution to institution. Some prisons contract with the school district for all adult basic education and secondary school instruction and with a community college district for postsecondary education. The benefits of these arrangements for the prison are considerable. The prison gets professional supervision and management of the program to the extent that it desires, and is relieved of most of the burdens of technical reporting on standards compliance. Teachers are working in a structure with which they are familiar; they report ultimately to a school superintendent rather than to administrators with no professional identification with them. The school district provides a service on which it does not lose, but from which it is prohibited by law from gaining. Contracts between prisons and school districts are very specific. Teachers' salaries are defined, and their fringe benefits as well. Payment of indirect costs of administration and supervision are allowed on a pro-rated basis. In general, the decision to contract with a prison is optional with the school district; if it chooses not to, as sometimes happens, the prison must look elsewhere or develop its own civil service instructional staff. Whichever course is required by circumstances, the funding for the program comes from the correctional budget, supplemented by Federal funds, and determined by average daily attendance at the various levels of education provided.

In many states, the school district option does not exist and is regarded as a needless administrative complexity. North Carolina and Minnesota employ teachers as civil servants and operate two of the most efficient programs encountered in our site visits. General management of the statewide program is in the hands of a small central office staff in both states; the actual supervision of the program is in the hands of a supervisor of education on the staff of the prison superintendent.

Seven states, notably Connecticut, Ohio, and Texas have formed central school districts for the entire correctional system. Where this is done, a school board is created, and the superintendent of schools reports directly to it. Support of the school district comes from funds allocated by the State department of education in the correctional budget.

It is difficult to judge which administrative structure is to be preferred. Where teachers are civil servants and the education department is a unit of the department of corrections, effective programs are certainly under way. There has been no disposition in Minnesota and North Carolina to make any change in this structure. To questions about the removal of teachers from the mainstream of educational practice--often cited as a disadvantage of the civil service management of a prison--we heard in reply that teachers were encouraged to attend professional meetings and to take advanced courses in schools of education just as in a local school district. Neither administrators nor teachers in either system expressed any inclination to change a system that works well for them and their students.

In her comprehensive study of the administration of correctional education, Miller suggests two major disadvantages to the administration of prison schools by civil servants.[1] First, the civil service is vulnerable to the change of prison administration and its priorities. The supportive commissioner of corrections may be replaced by an executive who is indifferent to education and obsessed with security to the exclusion of every other program. It is hard to see how an independent school district would overcome the resistance of such a commissioner; in such a confrontation, the school board and school superintendent would eventually lose, but it is at least doubtful that such a confrontation would often occur. In less extreme situations, a school board with a strong and politically influential membership will be able to affect a commissioner's priorities, and there is some reason to believe that such influences are successfully brought to bear.

In the second place, Miller contends that the energy that an agency with the sole responsibility of providing educational services will devote to its responsibilities will be lacking in the civil service bureaucratic structure of the department of corrections. This contention is refuted by the outstanding educational programs that are provided in Minnesota and North Carolina. In both states, commissioners of corrections have given their vigorous support to educational services, thereby establishing administrative norms that will not readily erode, even if they are eventually replaced by officials with other interests.

As any observer of public administration in any field knows, organizational models alone, whether formal or informal, cannot compensate for lack of motivation and competence of the personnel occupying the squares on the charts. Though this principle is axiomatic, there are some advantages to the civil service superstructure which deserve consideration. Lines of authority and accountability are clear and unambiguous. While this is not an essential consideration, the responsibility of the warden for assuring that the educational program is free from obstruction and interference will be more certainly maintained if it is his program for the success of which he is accountable.

Where there is settled legislative support for prison education, the responsibility for results rests with the commissioner or director of corrections, and through him to the warden. The trail of accountability is clear. Where prison education does not flourish, someone who does not care is not being held to account. Often it is the commissioner or director himself, confronted by a legislative committee that is indifferent to the results that could be obtained from prison education.

A final consideration in favor of placing the educational program under the correctional superstructure is intangible and hardly subject to conclusive demonstration. Where the teaching staff is subject to an employer other than the department of corrections, it is administratively and psychologically separate from the prison staff itself. Representation on classification committees, resolution of interdivisional problems, and participation in treatment teams will be complicated by the teacher's status as an outsider, but there are advantages to the outsider's status. In any conflict situation, particularly those between staff and prisoners, the outsider is not aligned unless he chooses to be. Sources of policy guidance come partly from authority beyond the prison structure.

Where the educational program is administered wholly or in part by a local school district the teachers are outsiders with all the advantages and disadvantages we have discussed. In addition they are eligible for tenure, if the laws allow it, within the district, and can enjoy other advantages of being part of the educational apparatus of the community. For the prison, there is relief from the problems of recruitment and administration as previously noted. It is also pointed out by some administrators that where there is dissatisfaction with the performance of the school district, the contract can be terminated for cause or when it comes up for renewal. Whether this latter consideration should be thought of as practical advantage is dubious. We did not hear of any convincing examples of its application.

What Miller considers the "ideal" solution is the formation of a central correctional school district, in which all prison schools are subject to a special board of education with a superintendent of schools responsible to the board rather than to a commissioner or a director of corrections. One of the best known applications of this model--and certainly a successful application--is the Windham School District, legislatively authorized and organized in 1969 for the management of the Texas prison education program. A description of the Windham District, as an example of this model, is in order at this point.

The Windham School District

The Texas Legislature authorized the Windham School District in 1969. The initiative came from Dr. George Beto, then Director of Corrections, with the support of the Texas Board of Corrections. The enabling act is brief. (See Appendix D.) It authorizes the Board of Corrections to establish and operate schools at the various "units," or prisons, of the Department of Corrections. That puts the Board of Corrections on the same footing as all the local school districts in the State for eligibility for support from the Texas Foundation School Program Fund, from which all State aid to elementary and high schools is disbursed. To emphasize its special role in the administration of educational programs in prisons, the Texas Board of Education constituted itself as the Board of Education of the Windham School District.[2]

The Act provides that the budget committee of the Foundation School Fund will give annual consideration to the cost of supporting primary and secondary education in the Texas Department of Corrections, and that all Texas prisoners who are not high school graduates are eligible for instruction in schools maintained by the Windham School District. As we shall see, there is also a large postsecondary education program. It is funded separately from the Windham District under line items in the corrections budget. Contracts with local universities and community colleges provide for instruction. A Division of Continuing Education in the Department is responsible for administration and liaison with the service-providing colleges.

So far as possible, the Windham District is managed in the same way as any other school district. An administrative staff is filled out with technical personnel to assure that supporting services are efficiently provided. The Windham District's accountability to the Texas Department of Education is the same as that of any other school district. There is one obvious difference. The Windham District has no power to tax, and is primarily dependent on the Foundation School Program Fund. In 1979-80, support from the Fund was $5,641,155. That sum was augmented by $645,197 in Federal grants, bringing the District's total income to $6,286,352. The Foundation Fund allocation is based on a ratio established by the State for the number of teachers to average daily attendance. Teachers are paid on a scale that ties salaries to years of service and graduate degrees. In addition to professional salaries, operating expenses are calculated for the 1980-81 school year at $135 per student per year of average daily attendance. This formula is exactly the same as that which is allowed to every other school district in the State, with the qualification that some localities may be allowed a higher rate per student.

The postsecondary school program is administered separately from the Windham District, although professional collaboration is close. About $600,000 was budgeted in 1979-80 as a line item in the corrections budget for postsecondary education. To that, tuition per student enrolled was added from the Basic Educational Opportunity Grant program of the Federal Department of Education which, in 1979-80, amounted to $100,000.

These sums contrast with the line item in the 1968-69 budget (which preceded the organization of the Windham School District), for $350,000 for all educational programs. To that sum, the proceeds of the annual Texas Prison Rodeo added about $200,000.[3] The large increase in financial support has made possible a large increase in enrollment. In 1969, the last year of the old regime, the average daily attendance was 1,328. In the whole system there were 22 teachers, none of them certified. With the activation of Windham, only eight were permitted to remain, and these only on condition that they should obtain certification within a reasonable period of time.

Expansion from the meager 1969 level was both qualitative and quantitative. Average daily attendance in 1979-80 was over 3,500, representing a total enrollment of 9,350. Texas prisoners are allowed one full day per week in school; the remainder of the week is spent in fulltime work assignments. Postsecondary education takes place on Saturdays or at night.

There are now 237 certified classroom teachers distributed among the 15 units of the Department. An administrative section of 47 persons provides managerial, supervisory, and technical support functions. Many of the audio-visual aids used in Windham classrooms are developed in the district's technical support center. The staff of the Windham School District is well over 10 times as large as the educational services that preceded it, an increase that far exceeds the growth of the prison population. Since 1969, the Windham School District has awarded high school diplomas to 14,555 prisoners who completed the General Educational Development (GED) examination--1,974 of these in the 1978-79 school year. The Adult Performance Level program, described in Chapter II, graduated 55 prisoners from the APL III program. A full-scale conventional high school program is also available and produced 19 graduates; over the last decade the total was 216.

About 2,700 prisoners are enrolled in the postsecondary programs offered by community colleges, and 300 are in courses offered by State universities. Still another 800 are enrolled in vocational courses administered by community colleges. At the close of the school year in 1979, 300 men and women received the Associate in Arts certificate, and 50 received bachelor degrees after completing a four year course.

About half the total population of 24,000 have some exposure to an educational program. That contrasts with about 11 percent of the prison population of about 12,000 in 1969. In her account of the Windham School District's first five years, Dr. Lane Murray, the superintendent from the District's inception, attributes much of its success to the vastly increased funding made available by access to the Foundation Fund.[4] The organization made possible by the funding formulas open to a school district elevated prison education from an inconspicuous appendage to the Texas prisons to a major force in the system. This is a superstructure that enables a good staff to attract students by providing good instruction.

It is not without problems. As in any correctional operation, the ideal is farther from achievement than in most public services. Interviews with teachers elicited the complaint that the time available for instruction is too limited for efficient learning. The allocation of one full day each week to school attendance for the working prisoner is a seriously restricting limit, especially for the man or woman who has been out of school for many years and unaccustomed to the demands of adult education. The work ethic of the Texas Department of Corrections is inexorable; it is unlikely that it will be soon changed in favor of more frequent school attendance or more hours allocated to instruction.

The Windham staff expands rapidly--83 new teachers were added to the system last year--and there is some reason to think that training teachers for the practice of their profession in this new environment should become more intensive. The present indoctrination for new teachers consists of eight hours' exposure to instruction on security and another eight hours of orientation to the objectives and philosophy of the Windham School District.

Evaluation of the Windham District's performance is entirely in the hands of accrediting agencies. The Texas Education Agency and the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools requires an annual self-study. The annual reviews by these agencies during the past five years has been favorable enough to continue State support. Limiting evaluation processes to the satisfaction of the requirements of State funding agencies resolves the problem of justifying fiscal support. It does not provide planners with the base for making decisions about future programs in the light of present experience and probable contingencies ahead. As we shall discuss in later sections of this chapter, this is the kind of evaluation that does not seem to occur in any correctional education program.

The "classic" evaluation with randomized and controlled study of effectiveness using recidivism as a criterion has not been attempted. In this respect, the Windham District is not alone. So far as we can determine, no other state has undertaken such an evaluation. Not all authorities will agree with George Beto, the original designer of the Windham system, as he was quoted in Chapter II: "I don't think you have to prove that education is good. . ."[5] Whether this act of faith is justified as a principle, thereby eliminating the need for the "classical" evaluation, the size of the enrollment, the number of students completing courses of instruction, and the stability of a qualified staff combine to indicate that education is a successful and valued element in the Texas correctional system. Many elements in the Texas system of prison operations cannot be duplicated in any other state. But there is no feature of correctional education that could not be duplicated elsewhere that good teachers can be found and paid to conduct instruction.

The Assessment of Educational Needs

Any statistical summation and averaging of the scores of a reception center testing program will reveal that the combined educational deficit of any prison population is wide and deep. Apart from the criminal activity that brought the offenders to prison, the gap between present educational status and the potential for learning is characteristic of the prison population that most distinguishes it from the world outside the walls. Common sense would define this gap as a collective need that should be filled as a matter of the most urgent priority on the prison's resources. But as we have already seen in our review of correctional education programs, there are many obstacles to proceeding with a comprehensive effort to meet these needs.

Not the least obstacle to be considered is the prisoner's own perception of his need. The simplistic assessment of educational needs would establish the numbers of prisoners testing at each grade level and compute the resources needed to raise each prisoner to the highest level he would be capable of reaching within the time he would have to serve. So many prisoners requiring adult basic education for an average expected time to be served of so many years would yield an average daily enrollment that could be the basis for the educational budget. The same computation could be performed for the secondary school needs.

Unfortunately, educational administration is never so simple. Prisoners' perceptions of their needs will not necessarily coincide with the test results. Nor do prisoners always agree that their need for education is as urgent as the test results would indicate; many believe that they have been doing well enough without full achievement of their educational potential. Even if an administrator undertakes and completes the statistical exercise suggested above, it will be well for him to compare the objective results of the testing with the subjective perceptions of educational requirements as seen by the prisoners themselves.

Routinely the Bureau of Prisons conducts an annual needs assessment at each institution, based partly on the performance level of the population and partly on the returns of questionnaires distributed to each prisoner. A copy of this questionnaire will be found in Appendix E. Out of these two sources of data, an estimate can be made of the most important priorities for the educational program year ahead. Shifts of emphasis will result, new staff and equipment may be justified, and, where the need for some ongoing programs appears to have subsided, they can be curtailed or dropped.

The importance of this annual process can hardly be overestimated; where it is not being done the educational program is in growing danger of obsolescence. It is not always easy to perceive from day to day that a teacher is going stale, that attendance is a matter of routine rather than of desire to learn, or that the curriculum is losing relevance. Nor can the process of needs assessment be isolated from other factors such as motivation, incentives, the use of individualizing teaching equipment, and the competition of other programs. A prisoner may be acutely aware that he needs more education, but if he has a chance to work in an industrial job that pays him well, he may choose that relative affluence in preference to the condition of a penniless student working toward a GED.

Where dilemmas of this kind occur, steps should be taken to help prisoners to resolve them. Some prison systems allow students a stipend for regular school attendance, though never enough to be fully competitive with industry. In Texas, as we have noted, prisoners are allowed one day a week from their work assignments for school attendance. Good time can be allowed for program participation in California and several other states that have adopted determinate sentencing laws. What is important for the administrator to consider is that the educational deficits of prisoners are serious, often incapacitating handicaps for economic and social survival after release. Prisoners should not have to choose between earning and learning. They can do both--if administrators and educators can establish policies based on assessed needs and imaginative scheduling of time. Of that latter resource, prisoners generally have a surfeit. The administrator's obligation is to help them use time well.

The use of this abundant resource--time--must be scheduled wisely. Decisions must be made as to what the prisoner needs to learn and when. These decisions flow from an assessment process that should begin at the point of reception. Once the social and criminal histories are assembled, psychometricians should take over with batteries of tests designed to determine the prisoner's relative intelligence, his placement in school as to the various subjects taught, and his capabilities for learning more. If there is a mental disturbance or retardation to allow for, the tests should make a rough determination of the prisoner's ability to learn in a conventional adult education setting.

All these tests are designed to make decisions about educational placement. Such decisions are far different when made for adults than they are when made for children. If a child has finished the second grade, he is ready for the third. The same does not follow for the adult long gone from school. It is common to find that there is no correspondence between the scores on scholastic achievement tests and a prisoner's claimed or actual last grade attended in school. The illiterate or semiliterate high school graduate is no myth, especially in the prison population. To those who graduated by seniority from lax high schools there must be added those who learned poorly because they were poorly motivated; they quickly lapsed from whatever precarious educational level they had attained in the public schools.

The diagnostic scores compiled at the point of reception go to the educational supervisor for appraisal and counseling as needed. The day of coerced programming is over--at least conceptually--but decisions about placement in classrooms still have to be made. They should be based on full and frank discussions between the prisoner and the school counselor. The object is to convey to the prisoner what the teaching staff thinks it could do for him and why it would be to his advantage to collaborate. These advantages are obvious to teachers, and often to prisoners, too. Some are immediate, some are eventual, and some are to be realized only in the long range. The immediate advantages are to be found in a respite from a heavy work program like that in Texas, or from the tedium of idleness, as in most other prison systems. In some poorly controlled prisons, school is a haven of relative safety from the dangers existence on the yard presents to life and limb.

Incentives

For more prisoners than is commonly supposed, the interest of a well conducted educational program is a benefit they can recognize for themselves. In the course of our site visits we frequently heard the spontaneous remark that the main reason they stayed in school was the pleasure of learning to do something that had previously seemed to be beyond them. "Most days, I can hardly wait to get to class," one of them told us very convincingly. At the Federal Metropolitan Correctional Center, which is "co-correctional," the attraction of contact with the opposite sex in the classroom leads many prisoners to enroll, but they stay because they are learning. At many other institutions, attendance in a class taught by a woman is the only opportunity many prisoners have to be in touch with female company.

The eventual advantages are more tangible. Under the Mutual Agreement Programming contracts in use in some systems, success in an educational program will result in a reduction in time to be served. When such an agreement is in force, the parole board assents to a program, usually consisting in part of an educational commitment by the prisoner which, upon completion, will entitle him to release. Contracts of this kind have been particularly successful in North Carolina, where about 400 prisoners engage in this kind of contractual relationship with their keepers. The process is simple. Negotiations are based on an assessment of the prisoner's needs and an estimate of the minimum time to be served for his offense. Those prisoners who will not serve extended terms in confinement are eligible to sign a contract with the parole board, by which the prisoner is obligated to complete a detailed plan of self-improvement which, when satisfactorily completed, obligates the Board to release him. These contracts are usually signed after a period of bargaining in which each side tries to minimize obligations. Sometimes contracts must be renegotiated because the terms are unrealistically ambitious. In any given school year, about 400 North Carolina prisoners are engaged in educational contracts of this kind. Similar contracts are in use in Minnesota; we have included two samples in Appendix F.

A second category of eventual advantages is also available in the North Carolina system; good time is awarded for program participation. This plan is especially appropriate where a determinate sentencing structure is in force, such as North Carolina has recently put into effect. Time from the fixed sentence is remitted for each month of satisfactory program participation. A weaker provision has been written into the California law, without clear specification that participation must be more than mere attendance in class.

These inducements are relatively new. For years, however, less verifiable incentives have been rather ambiguously offered. In most prisoner communities, it is accepted that parole boards take a more favorable view of the prospects of individuals who have devoted time and effort to rehabilitative programs, especially education. This is a logical expectation, but specific remissions are seldom written into policies and guidelines. The well known work of Gottfredson, Wilkins, and Hoffman[6] on Guidelines for Parole Sentencing makes no provision at all for program participation. We must suppose that the exclusion of this variable is due to the fact that such participation has never been shown to be predictive of successful parole completion. Nevertheless, although educational progress has never been an infallible determinant of parole board action, most applicants hope that it will sway decisions in their favor, and many believe that school attendance is a demonstration of good intentions and increased ability to carry those intentions out. Unfortunately, most parole boards have been unwilling to make explicit advance concessions of this kind until the advent of Mutual Agreement Programming.

Purists are uneasy about the implications of the secondary gains to be achieved by enrollment in academic education. Most educators prefer to think that what is learned should be for the sake of learning and the utility of what is learned to the individual as an economic and social unit. Such a commitment to ultimate values may prevail in a graduate school devoted to basic research, but it is unrealistic to expect in any other setting. It is impossible to suppose that a prisoner will not capitalize on any appearance he can turn to his favor in his eagerness, if not his desperation, to expedite his release. There are few choices he can make. If he chooses to go to school, mere attendance will be valueless if he doesn't learn enough to complete courses satisfactorily. There is no real difference between a prisoner working hard at a GED program so that he can reduce his time in prison, and a pre-medical student frantically maintaining his grade point average so as to assure himself of admission to medical school. Both will learn a great deal on their way to goals that have very little to do with the substance of what is being taught.

Assignment to Programs

Assignments to education programs in most prisons is by authority of the classification committee, which is really a decision-making forum in which information concerning prisoners can be exchanged, reviewed and interpreted.

The Supervisor of Education should be in frequent attendance and represented by a subordinate when he is unavailable. If a waiting list has to be maintained because of shortages of teachers or classrooms, that list should be maintained by the Supervisor of Education. He must be responsible for reports to the classification committee on the progress and conduct of prisoners assigned to the school; in most cases, his reports will be the crucial items in determining the progress of the prisoner and his eligibility for custodial and other program changes.

Interpretation of classification committee decisions to the prisoner is ordinarily the responsibility of a counselor. It should not be left at that. The Supervisor of Education must be accessible for information about enrollment in school, the time that must elapse before a prisoner's name comes to the top of a waiting list, and about preparations the prisoner might make for successful learning when his turn comes.

Educational programs flourish when there is free and understanding exchange of views in day-to-day institutional routines. We have stressed throughout this monograph the importance of integrating the prison school with the rest of the prison services and operations; it must not be a concession, isolated from the rest of the institution. To accomplish this goal the educational staff must be involved in institutional affairs as a whole. Only when it is can it be expected that the obstructions to the program will dissipate.

The Role of the Educational Supervisor

The institutional Supervisor of Education has work of considerable variety to do, and much depends on the vigor with which he performs his tasks. Consider, for example, the situation of a Supervisor of Education carrying out a program in facilities converted from a hospital ward. To a considerable extent, his program depends on "soft" money--Federal grants. That education must proceed in space never designed for the purpose and so dependent on resources outside the agency's control is beside the point. No one planned it that way, but the budget approved by a congressional appropriations committee determined that if an educational program was to exist, the resources to support it would have to be improvised.

That is the situation of the educational program of the Metropolitan Correctional Center operated by the Bureau of Prisons in New York City. This is the facility in which defendants awaiting trial and unable to raise the funds for bail are detained, as well as some adjudicated felons and misdemeanants. Opened in 1975, it was designed without expectation that an educational program would be needed or appropriate for prisioners who are, for the most part, penal transients. The Center was built for a capacity of 432 persons of both sexes, and is always full or nearly so. Movement in and out is rapid; the turnover is always high. Intervention by the

Federal courts, especially in the case of Wolfisch vs. Levi,[7] determined that the Federal Correctional Center, even though housed in new facilities and possessed of more than the usual amenities, must provide programs for those who want them. No educational facilities had been included in the architectural design. The decision having been made to conduct a school program, a considerable portion of the medical unit was converted into classrooms and teachers' offices. The re-arrangement looks like an improvisation, but the conditions needed for instruction are in place, and teachers are on hand to carry it out. More serious than the lack of space designed for education was the lack of personnel or funds for the support of the program. Positions were created for an educational supervisor and an assistant, who soon perceived their duties as including the discovery of "soft" money for the conduct of a full-scale program. With considerable energy and imagination, they have succeeded in obtaining grant support from the U. S. Office of Education under the provisions of various titles of various Public Laws enacted to assist local education authorities in the development of adult education. Initiative has to go far. In one situation, the supervisor found himself preparing a grant application for post-secondary education at the Center, on behalf of a cooperating college. Expertise in the preparation of proposals and the management of Federal grants and contracts is especially important in prison education; the need is not limited to situations like that of this Center; there are no correctional education programs that we have heard of that are not partly dependent on Federal support. The knowledge of the range of Federal programs, the time and ability to write successful proposals, and the management of funds after their receipt are not easily mastered. We have listed in Appendix A the most important legislation authorizing Federal funding for correctional education.

Once all the funds, hard and soft, are flowing properly, the educational Supervisor can turn his attention to the ordinary educational tasks. At the Metropolitan Correctional Center, these tasks begin with the newly arrived prisoner. Each morning, the first item on the agenda is a meeting with the previous day's influx. The haggard, sullen, and depressed men and women who have arrived by various routes and on different charges are told that there is an educational program for which they can sign up. They are told that simple tests will be given them to assure that each person gets the teaching that he or she most needs. Under the circumstances in which this session is held, it is improbable that this message is fully comprehended by all present. The word begins there, and is carried farther by members of each Unit Management Team. This prison school never lacks for students: out of the total of more than 400 prisoners on any given day, about 170 will be enrolled in one of the school programs, probably close to the maximum number possible, given the transients, the work crew, and other ineligibles. A visitor to the crowded offices of the education staff must make his way through a swarm of applicants for enrollment, men and women taking placement tests and having the results interpreted to them, and students going to and from their classes. In nearly all of these interactions the Supervisor must play a part. He is responsible for selecting the tests to be administered and interpreting the scores to those tested. He must make judgments about programs suited to the inmate and counsel him or her concerning its relevance to perceived needs. Many of those who engage in the program will be unable to complete what they are doing before they must go on to another prison elsewhere. The record initiated at the Center must be sent on, with recommendations about its further continuance.

The daily routines of an educational supervisor in a setting like this are exacting, diverse, and require a professional versatility not often seen in any administrative setting. At the Metropolitan Correctional Center, reliance has to be placed on prisoner-teachers, of whom there were four at the time of our site visit. Not all authorities agree that it is desirable to give prisoners the status of instructors; the current version of the Manual of Standards for Adult Correctional Institutions expressly discourages the practice.

The conventional reasoning is that no prisoner should be allowed a place of authority over others. Not only does he wield power over fellow prisoners but he may be intimidated or manipulated into its misuse. Against this contention it is argued that a prisoner-teacher should have a closer and more understanding rapport with his students. Coming from the same circumstances as some of them, and faced with the same kind of uncertain prospects, prisoner-teachers are thought to be better able to pace their instruction to the needs of the students and to express themselves in a vernacular familiar to all.

We were not persuaded by either argument. Our observation of the prisoner-teachers at the Metropolitan Correctional Center suggested that where the system is under firm civilian control, the authority of the teacher can be limited to the four walls of the classroom. It is true that in some prison school systems GED diplomas have been sold to anyone with funds to pay the price. Where such a gross violation of trust occurs, control has been lost long before the breach of faith. The prisoner-teacher whose professional duties are limited to instruction will be moved to make his reputation by the number of his successes on bona fide examinations administered under unchallengeable conditions.

On the other hand, the notion that the understanding of the class that a prisoner-teacher possesses will surpass the comprehension of a civilian instructor is surely specious. There are many sources of empathy and the mere sharing of the same status is by no means the most essential. Even at that, it is doubtful that empathy is the quality most needed in adult education. Thorough knowledge of the subject matter to be taught, a knack for explanation, tact, and patience seem to loom larger in explaining the success of any good teacher. Certainly the classes conducted by prisoner-teachers that we observed bear out this view. Good teachers must be taken into service wherever they can be found. A good teacher who happens to be a prisoner can be a reliable addition to a staff that will never be too large. No prisoner should be allowed to teach who cannot demonstrate his professional prowess in the classroom; the prison school is no place to demonstrate this version of affirmative action at the cost of effective education.

The Evaluation of Prison Education

Many forces have converged to force the need for evaluation into the consciousness of administrators of social programs of all kinds. Congressional or legislative mandates have required evaluation (though often not specifying criteria or methodology) for the innovative programs of the sixties and seventies. Many other administrators have thought that evaluation should be carried out, even if not legislatively required, just to assure that there is accountability for what happens. Often program managers have instituted their own self-assessments to ascertain whether the results obtained by their programs correspond to the results expected.

Impressive and irrefutable arguments are marshaled in support of the principle that governmentally supported programs should--or must--be evaluated. Taxpayers should be given evidence that their money is well spent. Administrators need evaluations to justify the continuation of programs. Program service providers have to know whether their services are meeting the needs for which they were engaged. Program recipients need to know that participation produces results commensurate with the effort of participation.

All these arguments apply to the correctional apparatus and to its components, including prison education. As to the many pscyhological interventions, a great deal of formal evaluative research has been done, with results so inconclusive as to convince some observers that efforts to rehabilitate criminals are wastefully futile.[8] Formal evaluations of correctional education have been conspicuous by their absence from the literature of corrections. The reason is obvious. Most of the evaluations undertaken during the last twenty years have been conducted on innovative programs in psychotherapy, community treatment, parole supervison, and other correctional programs thought to be in need of testing before they could be accepted as standard budget items. Whatever its faults in years gone by, correctional education has been a fixture in prison budgets and in most cases budgets have been calculated by formula. The concept of education is fiscally secure in its regular share of most correctional budgets, just as in the case of custodial operations. Few fiscal control agencies have thought that this is a concept in need of testing, hence evaluations have been without the support required for rigorous studies.

Sufficient interest in the value of correctional education was mobilized in 1976 for the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration to support a massive National Correctional Education Evaluation Project under the auspices of

Lehigh University. Under the direction of Dr. Raymond Bell, a large sample of prisons was subjected to a study of the operations of their correctional education programs.[9] Although a great deal of information was gathered by an obviously energetic and perceptive group of investigators, neither rigorous evaluations nor the data for such evaluations were available for use by the project.

It was not that there was any serious disagreement that evaluation was needed. During the three years previous to the study, the respondents to the project's inquiry reported that no less than 916 evaluations had been conducted, 490 of which were "external," and 426 "internal."[10] Interviewed, the educational administrators, who were the chief respondents, presented a curious set of views on the topic of evaluation. The "external" evaluations were conducted by Federal or state grant monitors, while the "internal" evaluations tended to be "day-to-day monitoring of . . . programs, staff, and facilities." Bell and his colleagues noted that, "Often this is done in an informal manner or on an 'as needed' basis." There was general agreement that "more" evaluation of their programs was needed, but some added the qualification that the need was for the "right kind" of evaluation. On further questioning, it transpired that the "right kind" of evaluation would be addressed to three kinds of issues: "(1) the quality of the programs; (2) the needs these programs addressed, and (3) the developmental, continuous, and integrative nature of evaluation programs." The criteria for evaluation, the educators thought, should include "teaching techniques, student progress records, inmate response, course objectives, and course sequence." There was unanimous agreement that the evaluation should not be in terms of institutional or post-release adjustment.[11] But when asked whether recidivism rates should be a dependent variable in evaluating correctional education success there was an even split in opinion. Under the circumstances it is not surprising that the project's Final Report wound up its review of a large number of evaluations with the assertion that "the quality, effectiveness, and purpose of these evaluations may be, at best, questionable and, at worst, meaningless.[12]

Evidently the evaluation of correctional education has not yet taken place in any reliable sense, in spite of the pieties of the administrators and teachers whose views were obtained by the Lehigh University investigators. The recommendations of Dr. Bell's group provided that the "over-riding need" was the "refinement and development of the scope, form, and purpose of such evaluations." The group went on to urge that priority should be given to such criteria as "inmate needs assessment, inmate response to program, post-program follow-up, and recidivism.[13]

To bring order into this chaotic state is no easy task. Our contribution must be tentative and drawn from experience with the deceptive perplexities of any kind of evaluation in corrections. We shall begin with some principles that need to be observed if evaluations are to be of any use to any interested party, consider vexing problems of research design, and suggest a model for application. With no experience of significant and rigorous evaluation of prison education programs to draw upon, our approach must be cautious. Until it is applied, we cannot say how practical it will be to carry it out, or how useful it will be when completed.

The principle of heuristic design: Note that the administrators queried by Bell and his associates wanted to be sure that any evaluation applied to them should be of the "right kind." Their explanation did not sparkle with clarity, but we believe that they had in mind the first and most significant concept in planning evaluation research. This concept is that evaluation must have a purpose. No evaluation model can serve all the purposes that must be defined by all the interests that have to be informed. The counting of post-release recidivists in a sample of persons exposed to prison education, as compared with a similar and similarly situated control group, may have some meaning for those concerned with cost effectiveness and defense of the program before an appropriations committee. But such studies will scarcely enlighten the administrator or the educator on how the program can be improved. On the other hand, studies of program completion, the comparison of educational processes, or assessment of new educational technology should be essential research for the administrator but of less use to a control agency. The prison educators who insisted on the "right kind" of evaluation were asking for studies that could help them do a better job. The counting of recidivists at the end of a line many months or years long tells the educator virtually nothing they need to know; the study of processes as they take place is vital to the improvement of those processes.

> Our first principle then requires heuristic research design: An evaluation must be designed to answer a question and to explain that answer as fully as possible.

The principle of differentiation: Too often correctional programs are evaluated as though it were believed that all prisoners are alike--so many prisoners in the sample recidivated on release, so many did not. It is absurd to compare a prisoner-student who completed his instruction with flying colors with one who barely passed, or who flunked, or who dropped out before completion. But many studies in program evaluation make just this kind of error. For prison education programs, in which true control, in the sense of random assignment to experimental and control groups is virtually impossible, it is especially essential to record with care the nature of the exposure to the program if a long-range outcome measure is sought.

> Our second principle calls for differentiation: The subjects of an evaluation of correctional education should be classified according to their capability to learn what is taught and their success in the subjects in which they have been instructed.

The principle of control: A credible evaluation must be controlled. For many theorists of research design anything less rigorous than the comparison of two randomized groups drawn from the same pool of eligible subjects is less than acceptable. While this ideal may be routinely expected and achieved in medical research, it is rare that its requirements can be met in criminal justice. We must doubt the feasibility of the classic experimental design for correctional education. It will not do to create a comparison group of persons of the same age and assigned to the same institution; whatever differences may be found can justifiably be explained by variables that were not controlled. The most potent such variable, of course, is motivation; it is not easy to exclude the prisoner who is highly motivated for education, and if this were to be done in the interests of research design, something would have to be done to control for the resentment he might feel on account of that exclusion.

If the classic experimental design is probably not feasible for adult education in prison, what can be done that will provide a credible evaluation of program? We believe that the concepts are readily defined, though their implementation may present some difficulties. Unlike many other correctional programs, the immediate outcomes of program exposure are readily counted with apparent objectivity. It is difficult to measure the impact of a group counseling program or a sentence to administrative segregation as to any individual or group. But as to any illiterate or group of illiterates, we know that so much program exposure should produce literacy. If this result is not attained, the reasons must be sought, and if there has been adequate preliminary classification of the student-subjects, at least a part of the answer is in sight. The comparison of needs assessment with scholastic status after program exposure will settle many of the questions that educational administrators need to have answered. In this case, control must mean assurance that the process of needs assessment and the process of determining school achievement are standardized and reliably carried out.

> Our third principle requires the evaluator to exact as much control as he can: Control requires that independent, intervening and dependent variables must be documented rigorously, and that the results of comparisons can be explained in terms of these variables rather than in terms of unknown or uncontrolled variables.

The principle of continuity: Prison education is a continuing process. Its reason for being depends on the expectation that those enrolled will be benefited by what they learn. The benefits will be difficult to verify in statistical terms, but data can be collected to determine whether and how much prisoners learn. These data should be regularly collected in form that facilitates comparison. Over time it will be important to know whether changes are taking place--more prisoners exposed to education or less; more prisoners advancing to higher grades or fewer; more prisoners completing the GED regimen or not so many. This kind of continuity requires as much standardization as possible in the collection of data. The forms should be as nearly identical as possible from year to year, the data should be collected at the same times and by persons occupying the same relationship to the program. The processes of evaluation depend heavily on the capability for comparison; the comparisons made from year to year cannot readily be made unless care is taken to assure that there is consistency in the collection of data.

> Our fourth principle calls for a consistency that makes year-to-year comparisons possible: Evaluation of the status of correctional education should be based on a continuity of assessments. This continuity in turn depends on consistency in the practice of data collection.

Interpretation: Observance of these four principles will assure that a foundation for a sound evaluation has been laid, whatever the purposes of the evaluation may be. But no evaluation is useful without interpretation. Assuming that the statistical analysis passes all the conventional tests of significance and reliability, there still remain questions about its meaning. This is a task that not even the most advanced computer can handle; it must be left to persons who can relate the statistical findings to the realities within the education department.

The questions that must be asked and answered are:

- What does the program cost? What is needed in addition to an analysis of gross costs is some basis for estimating the cost per student. Conventionally the figure is contact-hour, i.e., the cost of instruction of one student for one hour—a figure that will vary depending on the subject matter of the instruction, the methods of instruction, and the size of the class. Arriving at a figure for contact-hours for a total program is a relatively simple matter: average daily enrollment times the number of instructional hours per day times the number of instructional days per year would be the denominator of a fractional expression of which the total program cost is the numerator. Thus:

  Average daily enrollment = 250
  Instructional hours per day = 3
  Instructional days per year = 190
  Total cost of ABE/GED program = $189,000

  $$\frac{\$189{,}000}{250 \times 3 \times 190} = \frac{\$189{,}000}{142{,}500} = \$1.33 \text{ per contact hour.}$$

  An analysis of the cost for an individual course of instruction should be made with the same approach. The difficulties in isolating the total cost of the class will be marginally greater, but, especially where some innovative programming is called for, it is essential to provide for at least this level of analysis if any understanding of the value of the innovation is to be achieved.

- Is the program adequate to the need? This is a simple enough question to answer if the four principles of evaluation have been observed in the collection of data. What is needed is a count of the number of potential prisoner-students who have been found in a needs assessment to be educationally deficient. This figure should be aggregated, even though it will be understood that not all these educationally deficient individuals could be persuaded to enroll. If an effort has been made to maintain a waiting list of applicants for enrollment who cannot be accommodated in the program immediately upon arrival in the institution, the total number of such applicants times the number of days on the waiting list will provide a measure of the adequacy of the program to meet needs. In like fashion a figure should be used for surplus capacity of the program. This figure should be the program capacity minus the average daily attendance for the year.

- Is the program effective in helping prisoner-students to advance at the expected speed? The key word is effective. The cost per contact hour may be reasonable, the capacity of the program may be sufficient to meet demand, but if no one is learning, the calculation would have to be addressed to the waste of money and time. Reasonable periods of time have to be established for reasonable learning goals; data have to be collected for the time actually taken to achieve them. Aggregation of these data will yield average figures for the time for course completion for participants which can in turn be compared with the expected times required. If the average period of time for course completion exceeds the expected time, remedial measures have to be taken. If the reverse is the case, consideration should be given to a review of diagnostic procedures, or other measures that might be taken to understand why the program is performing better than had been expected.

- Is the program efficient? This question demands a comparison of the program with alternatives that might be less expensive or which might produce the same result in less time, even if not at diminished cost. A definitive answer depends on a comparison with an actual program addressed to the same objectives. A speculative answer will seldom settle arguments or enlighten decision-makers. Nevertheless, any evaluation should give consideration to the alternatives to the program under study. If there is reason to suppose that the same or better results could be achieved at less cost, that reason should be tested at the next opportunity.

- What can we learn about the program by studying its processes? Any educational program consists of numerous processes that can and often must be evaluated individually if the results of the total evaluation are to be understood. If, for example, Computer Assisted Instruction was used, what contribution did

> it make to the success of the program? Were the results commensurate with the cost? If the program was less successful than had been expected, does a review of the data on processes provide clues to the disappointing results? In advance of the evaluation, hypotheses about processes should be formulated for study to assure that the research design will be as heuristic as possible. Close observation of the processes as they go on may generate further hypotheses that will have to be tested if full understanding of the program evaluation is to ensue.

As must be evident to any reader of this monograph, we do not consider that an educational program must justify itself in long-term results. It is not necessary to attempt a proof that the educated parolee is less prone to crime than his uneducated counterpart. That does not render the need for a sound evaluation less urgent. In any organized social activity, routines become established as the years go by, opportunities for change are missed, and those who conduct programs become less attuned to changing needs of the recipients. This tendency toward deceleration can happen in correctional education, too, and the worst of it is that the decline is gradual. If evaluation does not take place the deterioration of the program will not be noticed until it has gone much farther than would be the case if the evaluation were an annual event.

In Chapter II we described the concepts and the practice that make correctional education a more creative and exciting process than ever before. None of these concepts will be of much practical use unless a sophisticated delivery system is available to fund the program, to manage it, and to provide the evaluation that should be the key event in the annual planning cycle. We believe that changes in the prison environment are also possible which would assure that education will flourish along with other activities in prison that make maximum use of realistic incentives. The outlines of such a prison are distinguishable, even in the precarious condition that generally prevails in American corrections. In the next chapter, we shall see what can be made of these outlines to the advantage of correctional education.

FOOTNOTES

1. Laura Means Pope Miller, "Toward Equality of Educational Opportunity through Schools Districts in State Bureaus: An Innovation in Correctional Education," Harvard Journal of Legislation, vol. 15, no. 1 (1978) pp. 222-296.

2. Named after James M. Windham, for many years a member of the Board of Corrections and in recent years its chairman.

3. The profits from the Texas Prison Rodeo still go to prison education, but they no longer make the crucial difference in educational finance.

4. Lane Murray, "The School District Concept," Adult Leadership, June 1975, pp. 358-360.

5. See Chapter II, above, p. 33.

6. Don M. Gottfredson, Leslie T. Wilkins, and Peter B. Hoffman, Guidelines for Parole and Sentencing (Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1978).

7. 406 F. Supp. 1243.

8. The most comprehensive base for this position is Douglas Lipton, Robert Martinson and Judith Wilks, The Effectiveness of Correctional Treatment (New York: Praeger, 1975). This catalog of correctional evaluation research contains very few evaluations of academic education; all of them were treated with justifiable reservations because of their loose research design. However, Martinson, in an article based on that book, still unpublished at that time, generalized that, "(i)t may be that education at its best . . . cannot overcome or even appreciably reduce, the powerful tendency for offenders to continue in criminal behavior." (Robert Martinson, "What Works? Questions and Answers about Prison Reform," The Public Interest, No. 35, (Spring 1974), pp. 22-54). None of the studies cited in Lipton et al. support such a conclusion.

9. Several units of the Lehigh University report are available. For the nonspecialist reader, see National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, Correctional Education Programs for Inmates. National Evaluation Program, Phase I, by Raymond Bell et al. (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office. Stock No. 281-3801/1608. June 1979).

10. Ibid., p. 55.

11. Ibid., pp. 58-59.

12. Ibid., pp. 94.

13. Ibid.

CHAPTER IV: EDUCATION IN THE WORKING PRISON

At the summit of optimism is the belief that the American prison will vanish as an instrument of criminal justice, to be replaced by other means of responding to offenders. The demand for an end to the practice of incarceration is understandable. Most of our prisons are overcrowded, housing a mass of idle men trying to survive in surroundings in which capricious violence appears to be endemic. Despite conditions that are easy to denounce, there does not seem to be a general disposition on the part of the public to dispense with the prison as punishment for those who commit the most serious crimes. Nevertheless, the need for change is obvious. The experience of imprisonment can be and should be one in which those who undergo it can reconstruct their lives. A prison cannot be and should not be a place to be preferred to normal life in freedom by any responsible person. However, incarceration need not be the degrading and dangerous experience that now prevails throughout the nation. Both theory and practice are available to make substantial changes for the better.

In this chapter we want to go beyond the conventional structure of prison organization to consider how education might fit into a new model for the experience of imprisonment. We have described some admirable programs that make education possible under unfavorable circumstances as well as in some of the best ordered prison systems in the country. We think that it is beyond question that these are good programs, led by excellent professional educators and succeeding in their objective of raising the sights of the offender for an aim at the satisfactions of legitimate life. But every one of these programs resembles an island in the prison system in which it functions. In most American prisons there is little else to do and the conditions of imprisonment include idleness, predation, and manipulation for the sake of manipulation. For many prisoners, education is at least as much an escape from the inanity of life in a community of redundant time-servers as it is an occasion for self-improvement.

If the eventual abolition of the prison seems an improbable goal, it may seem to some that the improvements we have in mind are hardly more realistic. Yet bits and pieces of the future prison in which most of the worst abuses will be remedied are in place here and there. With leadership and imagination, educational programs can become the key to practical prison reform.

The Working Prison

Concern about the idleness that has typified American penal conditions is not new. It is a frequently noticed irony that the hard labor to which offenders are supposedly consigned when sentenced is scarcely to be found in any of the prisons where hard labor is to be done. Efforts to remedy this situation have been isolated and much less than entirely successful. The typical work program in most prisons is over-assigned, short in hours, and paid at derisively low rates, as though to remind a prisoner of how little worth he is.

In 1975, The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration initiated efforts to make some fundamental conceptual changes in the structure of work in prison, expecting at the same time that the very nature of the prison experience would be changed. Out of a series of studies of the possibilities there emerged the Free Venture program, a radically different way of organizing the prison community. It is too soon to say for sure that this is indeed the future of corrections. There are many forces in American society and its economy that may limit its spread. It remains to be seen whether enlightened correctional leadership is strong enough or widely enough available to push the concepts and practice of Free Venture prison industries into general acceptance. With all these hedges on optimism the Free Venture idea is still the most hopeful prospect in sight for major change in the prison community. The education of offenders will contribute much to its success and in any case should accommodate to its regime as it gathers momentum.

This is not the place for a history or a minute description of the Free Venture idea and its translation into practice. An understanding of the fundamental concepts is necessary to an appreciation of the potentialities of the changes for the better that the plan is intended to achieve. As originally projected, the objectives of Free Venture were:

- Workers should be exposed to a realistic work environment including:
  - (a) a full work day,
  - (b) prisoner wages based upon work output,
  - (c) productivity standards comparable to outside world business,
  - (d) hire and fire procedures within the limits of due process rights, and
  - (e) transferable training and job skills.
- Prisoners should partially reimburse the state for custody and welfare costs as well as restitution payments to victims.

- Prisoners should gradually be prepared for release into the community.
- There should be fixed responsibilities with financial incentives and penalties, for job placement of prisoners upon release into the community.
- Prison industries should receive financial incentives for successfully reintegrating offenders into the community.
- Prison industries should be self-supporting profit-making business operations.[1]

Experience with Free Venture in the states where it was originally put into operation led to the decision to discard the requirement that prisoners should pay for housing, welfare costs and restitution; this requirement was optional. It was also decided that it was not essential that Free Venture should take initiatives in placing prisoners when they are released to the community, or that there should be financial incentives to industries for the achievement of successful reintegration. It will be seen that the emphasis is now on a realistic simulation of the procedures that assure profitability in outside industry.

To anyone unfamiliar with the realities of prison management, these requirements might seem to be no more than should be expected. In reality, they promise to revolutionize the usual routines of incarceration. Even in the states in which the most effort has been made to put them into effect, they are far from standard in the systems in which they are under trial. It is one thing to propose an objective and to justify its priority in planning for penal improvement. It is quite another to find and bring in industries that can be self-supporting, to pay wages on the basis of productivity, and then to set in motion the machinery to proceed with actual factory operations, with prisoners working eight-hour days at the tempo of a shop in the outside world. There are formidable obstacles to be surmounted. Necessary custodial controls must be modified. Schedules and routine have to be adjusted. Classification policies and procedures must be radically overhauled. Given the resistances to change of such magnitude, the prospects for Free Venture's success are questionable, but given the executive will to make the changes, Free Venture can become a reality.

Seven states--Connecticut, Illinois, Minnesota, Colorado, Iowa, Washington, and South Carolina--have undertaken the Free Venture shift with varying records of success and disappointment. Some have transformed conventional prison industry programs into Free Venture, some have aggressively sought out private industries to bring in working outposts to the prison. Nowhere has Free Venture reached an optimum level of operations, but where it is under trial its benefits are seen as fundamental changes in the nature of the prison community.

At the Minnesota Medium Security Prison at Lino Lakes, a wide variety of small shops have been placed on the Free Venture basis of operations. These include printing, metal de-burring, telephone case buffing, upholstery and furniture, and the manufacture of kitchen equipment. All these projects are managed on a private industry base, and the articles produced are sold in the private sector. Most of the work in these shops is at a relatively modest level of skill. All have been functioning for too brief a period to be fully tested as penal programs or as profitable manufacturing operations for the companies that have installed them.

Nevertheless, about 120 prisoners at Lino Lakes--all transferred from Stillwater, the main prison of the State--are employed at wages that range from a minimum of $1.50 an hour to rates as high as $7.00 an hour, depending on the skill required for their assignments. A new Free Venture shop has been installed at Stillwater, employing about 25 people at school bus repair and paying wages that are comparable to those paid at Lino Lakes.

A somewhat newer program is under way in Iowa, where prison industries have been integrated with work release, enabling prisoners to work their last year in custody at such occupations as building maintenance, automobile repair, and printing. Wages range up to $2.55 an hour.

The oldest Free Venture program is in Connecticut. At the Connecticut Correctional Institution at Somers, the entire existing industrial program was transferred from conventional prison industries management to Free Venture. Some shops were unable to survive under such conditions. But there are now six shops employing more than 200 prisoners--out of a population of about 1,000--in full compliance with Free Venture: a clothing factory, a print shop, a furniture factory, an upholstery shop, a laundry serving other state institutions, and an optical lens-grinding shop. Prisoners are paid 20 cents an hour for a probationary period and up to a maximum of 50 cents an hour thereafter. With bonuses they can earn up to $100 a month, of which they are free to spend up to $80.00 as they please. Warden Carl Robinson, who has enthusiastically supported the program from the first, is certain that it reduces tensions and increases the personal self-esteem of the prisoners employed. There is always a waiting list for employment. Depending on efforts to enact legislation to authorize sales of free Venture products to nonprofit private corporations, the program is expected to grow. Free Venture prisoner-employees are treated according to the working conditions that prevail in the free world; there is nothing the program requires of them but steady work for an eight-hour day. Nevertheless, management encourages prisoner-employees to enroll in vocational education after hours so as to qualify themselves for the more skilled--and better paid--job assignments.

Problems abound. They are problems that can be solved, and in solving them prison management joins with industrial management in transforming the nature of incarceration from the prison of degradation and danger to a facility which is still a prison but one that is characterized by generally constructive activity. In such an environment, education of all kinds can flourish as never before. In the remainder of this chapter, we shall present a plan for the integration of education with Free Venture industry which, we believe, will be to the advantage of both interests.

The Prison of Opportunity

We have dwelt at some length on Free Venture because it seems to have the potentiality, at least, of normalizing prison life. The normal life of an able-bodied man or woman consists of work, sometimes drudgery in a blind alley, sometimes work with opportunities for various satisfactions other than survival. Free Venture vastly improves the work experience for the ordinary prisoner who is fortunate enough to be employed in it.

But there is more to the good life than work, no matter how satisfying it may be. Because incarceration removes most of these satisfactions from the convict's reach, the normalization of the prison community must be effected by the staff, if it is to be done at all.

Within the context of the contemporary prison, normalization must depend on the development of a realistic work program, an educational program that meets the prisoner's needs as he perceives them, and religious and recreation activities that attract voluntary participation. With the last two named we cannot be concerned here. Education is the center of our interest. Our problem is to achieve a complementarity between the Free Venture model and correctional education so that both services--and prisoners as well--will benefit. The advantages of coordination will relieve the apprehension that Free Venture is a new obstacle to educational programming.

The latter fear is not entirely unfounded. For many years, education and industry competed, often on unfriendly terms, for the participation of the best prisoners. Educators have generally thought that the typical prison industry is a time-filler of no value to the prisoner's present or future. In this contention they have often been right; many prison industries have been shamefully over-assigned and without value as training or discipline. On the other hand, prison industry officials have been eager to get the intelligent and skilled prisoners onto their payrolls for work that needs to be done if the industry is to meet its obligations and survive. Many of these prisoners have preferred to improve their skills in vocational education or postsecondary classes.

Even in the Free Venture context, industries are a threat to education. At the Minnesota prisons, the pay for a prisoner-student ranges from $1.40 to

$2.50 a day, far less than he could earn in Free Venture, and this is well known to prisoners who are awaiting assignment to an industrial shop. Inmates in Free Venture told us that they could hardly afford to attend school. Recognizing this problem, the planning staffs concerned suggested that a restriction on eligibility be placed on Free Venture assignments. Prisoners who did not have educational test scores that placed them at the eighth grade or better would be ineligible for Free Venture. Upon announcement of the plan, the Correctional Ombudsman objected that most of the work assignments in Free Venture were unskilled and therefore no educational qualification should be imposed that limited applicants to those with any tested achievement scores. The Department agreed that this contention had merit; although prisoners with low educational achievement should be encouraged to do something about their deficiencies, it certainly was not acceptable within the Free Venture concept of simulating outside work conditions to impose such an artificial barrier to employment. At the present time the unskilled assignments in the Minnesota Free Venture program are open to anyone, regardless of educational status.

We agree that school achievement should not be a criterion for assignment. However, a reasonable basis for selection for Free Venture has to exist. No one needs to know how to read and write to be a telephone case buffer, but some personal stability is required. In free world employment, it is perfectly acceptable to require a showing of stability, responsibility and diligence as prerequisite to acceptance for employment. We contend that the model for assignment in prison should call for no less. For a long time to come, assignment to Free Venture will always be a coveted prospect, desired by many who must wait their turns. Certainly it is reasonable to require that while waiting their turns, prisoners should demonstrate enough initiative and responsible conduct to justify their assignment.

One way of making such a demonstration would be active enrollment in an appropriate educational program. Sometimes this will be a vocational education course, sometimes it would be the academic classroom work that would qualify the prisoner for vocational training. Whatever the level of education required, the prisoner should be engaged in purposeful self-improvement. It will be much less important at what level of instruction he is enrolled than that he is enrolled and doing as well as could be expected of him in school. Such a prisoner will be preferable as an employee to one who has whiled away the days spent on the Free Venture waiting list playing dominoes on the yard or engaging in the various activities into which prisoners drift when left to their own devices without incentives to choose a constructive course. At best, these diversions are pathetically useless, serving to make sure that incarceration is a complete waste of the years spent in that condition. Too often, prisoners will choose activities that are destructive to self and self-image and gravely injurious to others. Direct coercion of these men and women into more profitable channels is both impractical and unproductive. The incentive of assignment to Free Venture may be a sufficient lure to send at least some of these prisoners to the schoolroom.

Once in the Free Venture program and past the probationary period in which his ability to do what is required by the job is tested, the prisoner's participation in an educational program should not end. There should be a purposeful effort to qualify him for a better job, one which will usually require training for skills he does not possess. It is to the interest of both management and the prisoner that everything possible should be done to qualify him for promotion. One of the reasons for the slow development of Free Venture is the fact that the population of any prison constitutes a pool of mostly unskilled labor. It takes only two hands, two feet, considerable patience and the necessary machines to buff telephone casings. But if the buffing machines are to be kept in repair, if the casings are to be assembled into telephones, and if the completed product is to be inspected for quality control, some prisoners will have to learn how to read instructions, how to maintain machines, and how to keep records. These and the numerous other skills needed by any industry that must function in a technological society, require in addition to the specifics of training a general foundation of education that makes the training possible. This is the foundation that is so shaky for many, if not most prisoners. It must be remedied if Free Venture industries are to compete successfully in the industrial market. It is not beyond the capacity of educators and industrial engineers to work together toward the design of needed modules of training that will include both the general education required for industrial training and the industrial training itself. Free Venture resources should be sufficient to pay prisoners to qualify themselves for advancement to jobs paying them at higher rates. Certainly there will be such jobs available to prisoners only if there are prisoners who can do what they require. A steady supply of such prisoners depends on a continuous program of industrial training. The maintenance of such a pipeline is a requisite to profitability, the overriding goal of Free Venture.

How far this plan should go remains to be seen from experimentation. A good many choices could be made. Free Venture management might stake the prisoner to a maximum number of hours of work-relevant education at full pay. Basic education would continue at the regular rate for prisoner-students not in Free Venture, and paid for out of prison education funds. A variant of such a program might be fulltime Free Venture work assignment supplemented by training assignments at reduced pay. Still another choice might be fulltime assignment of a Free Venture employee to an educational program which would be designed to qualify him as rapidly as possible for a new job, but for which he would have to prepare by undertaking preparatory education in his off-duty hours.

Consideration must be given to the practical economics of training. There is no good reason for Free Venture to train any employee in anything if it is known that he will be released a week later. (An exception might be made in the case of an employee who could move into the same industry working for the same employer, after release, at the level for which he would be trained. If that were the expectation, it would be of economic advantage to the industry only if the prisoner were moving from one plant to another operated by the same corporate employer.) While some redundancy in trainees will assure that skilled positions are better filled and continuously, certainly not every Free Venture employee should be encouraged to be in perpetual training. It will be reasonable cause for resentment by prisoners trained to take on work for which there is no serious opportunity of employment. A Free Venture industry intending to engage in a rational training program will have to adopt the rational personnel practices of successful private industry.

The nature and the extent of foundation education will be a set of issues for some dispute. Vocational training specialists are accustomed to the preparation of their trainees for various units in an apprenticeship course. For example, an apprentice welder is expected to master both arc welding and gas welding--among other things. Suppose that a Free Venture shop requires a regular supply of prisoners who are competent at gas welding, but without any training in arc welding; should the vocational educator agree to provide instruction in the one and not the other? What should be the boundary between the educational offering that Free Venture will pay for and that which would be more properly borne by the prison educational department? Hard and fast rules will not be possible, but a few potential resolutions are obvious.

First, Free Venture should support only that education and training that can be shown to be directly or potentially relevant to some specific employment in a Free Venture shop. If the employee who is to be trained needs to learn only gas welding and will never have occasion to use arc welding while employed by Free Venture, gas welding is all that Free Venture should pay for. An alert educational counselor will point out to the prisoner that if he is going to spend some weeks in the welding shop learning about gas welding, he might do well to spend a few more and learn arc and other types of welding as available. After all, if gas welding is all that he needs on this particular job, he won't be in prison forever, and arc welding may come in handy on a future job application form.

Similar reasoning can be used in respect to almost any educational offering that the prison has in store. The former functional illiterate who has completed adult basic education will probably need additional education to qualify for any of the semiskilled or skilled jobs in Free Venture. The specific course material in shop arithmetic, for example, will qualify a worker in a furniture factory for work above the unskilled level, but he should be made aware that while a GED certificate is not going to be required on a Free Venture job, the high school completion status will be an important--if not almost indispensable--asset on the competitive job market. While he is mastering the perplexities of shop arithmetic, he would be wise to devote additional time to the acquisition of a GED certificate at the expense of the prison.

Second, although it is inconsistent with the Free Venture idea to use its funds for nonindustrial purposes, its basic concern for the industrial placement of prisoners after release calls for as much encouragement as it can give to the general educational enterprise. In this monograph much stress has been laid on the extremely unfavorable situation of the man or woman released from prison without a secondary education. There will not be enough time in the sentences of many prisoners to complete a GED or an APL 3 course of instruction, and for some, it must be feared, a lifetime would not be long enough. Where strict Free Venture rules cannot be stretched to justify an educational course, scheduling arrangements should be made to enable prisoners to attend classes. For example, the Texas plan of setting aside one day a week for education and placing the rest of the week on a ten-hour-day basis, will make education an attractive interruption of the institutional routines. Although Texas is not a Free Venture state, it has had a lot more experience than most state prison systems in the accommodation of a full employment economy with the needs of an active educational program. The ten-hour-work day, combined with a full night school program and a full day each week to be devoted to education if the prisoner so desires, is completely consistent with the Free Venture idea.

A third support for education in the Free Venture prison would be the powerful incentive of good time allowed for school attendance with satisfactory performance. This incentive troubles the educational and the correctional purist, who holds that prisoners should not be rewarded for doing what is to their clear benefit anyway. A prisoner who has the sense to go to school and profit from instruction should also have the sense to see that every minute he can allocate to education will redound to his eventual benefit; the award of good time will only serve to create an irrelevant incentive to school attendance.

Purists invariably over-simplify in arriving at their uncompromising positions. In the artificial environment of the prison, it is often unclear why anyone--staff or prisoner--does what he does. From time out of mind, prisoners have gone to school to get "marks," as in the nineteenth century plans of Maconochie in Australia and Crofton in Ireland. They have frankly engaged in programs of self-improvement so as to convince a parole board of the sobriety and earnestness of their intentions. If in making this impression the illiterate has become literate or the unskilled has become skilled, who has lost what? If a few weeks off a sentence will induce a prisoner to apply himself in education as well as in industry, they are weeks well spent and should not be begrudged.

States that retain indeterminate sentence laws cannot logically use good time provisions; time off from an unfixed stay in prison or an indeterminate term of punishment is obviously unreal, and its lack of meaning is apparent to prisoners. But the indeterminate sentence lends itself admirably to the concept of Mutual Agreement Programming, discussed in Chapter III. Whether in a Free Venture program or not, a prisoner serving a term short of a life sentence should have the opportunity to shorten it by a Mutual Agreement Program contract. But the prisoner who is engaged all day in a Free Venture job will be understandably slow to bestir himself from an evening of television without the prospect of the classroom doing something immediately positive for him. If school attendance will get him out of prison sooner because it will lead to the completion of a Mutual Agreement Contract, many prisoners will make the effort. That they are attending school to shorten their sentences is a motive less enlightened than learning for the sake of learning, but that is an incentive that operates only on the most inquisitive scholars.[2]

What we have described in this chapter is a potential model that does not exist in its entirety anywhere. It is perfectly feasible in any prison system that is supported by enough public concern to establish a full scale industrial and educational program. Whether an appreciably larger fraction of the men and women released from such prisons will be "rehabilitated" to the extent of not becoming casualties to be recorded in tables of recidivism is doubtful at best. But a prison where everyone works who wants to, and at realistic wages, and one that encourages prisoners to take advantage of the educational program by offering immediate incentives, will allow far less scope for the activities of the predatory institutional outlaw. It will be a safer place for all who must work and live there, and those who leave will be as well prepared as possible for the unfriendly world that faces them. A prison working on this model will have done all that a prison can do to become lawful, safe, industrious and hopeful--the four criteria by which any prison should be judged, and by which nearly all prisons in America now fall woefully short.

FOOTNOTES

1. Barbara Auerbach et al., A Guide to Effective Prison Industries, Vol. 1. Creating Free Venture Prison Industries: Program Considerations (Philadelphia: The American Foundation, 1979), p. 5.

2. See John B. Carroll and Jeanne S. Chall, Toward a Literate Society: The Report of the Committee on Reading of the National Academy of Education (New York: McGraw Hill, 1975), chapter 9. This authoritative analysis stresses the importance of immediate, tangible rewards over and above the satisfaction of learning.

APPENDIX A

SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS

SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS[1]

Program	Legislation	Who May Apply	Applications or Information[2]
ADULT, ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION			
(13.400)[3] Adult Education, State Grant Program. To provide basic education programs for adults.	Adult Education Act of 1966.	State education agencies.	All must apply through state department of education.
(13.431) Education for the Disadvantaged. For youths 21 and under in institutions for the neglected and delinquent.	Elementary and Secondary Act, Title I.	State education agencies.	All must apply through state department of education.
(13.571) Improvement in Local Educational Practice, State Grant Program.	Elementary and Secondary Act, Title IV-C	State education agencies.	All must apply through state department of education.

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[1] A word of caution: When requesting information regarding the various programs, ask about current program plans and priorities. Information obtained from Executive Office of the President, Office of Management and Budget, 1979 Catalog of Federal Domestic Assistance, and First and Second Updates (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1979); from Federal Grants and Contracts Weekly, vol.4, no. 2; and from consultation with officials in California Departments of Youth Authority, Corrections, and Education and the Federal Bureau of Prisons.

[2] Unless otherwise indicated, all telephone numbers are area code 202, for administering departments of the U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C. 20202.

[3] Numbers in parentheses refer to Catalog program numbers.

SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS (continued)

Program	Authorizing Legislation	Who May Apply	Applications or Information
(13.564) Consumer Education. To support projects to assist students in developing skills, knowledge, and understanding for marketplace and citizenship roles.	Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Sec. 811, as amended.	State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private organizations.	Bureau of School Improvement, Office of Consumer Education, 653-5983.
(13.599) Basic Skills Improvement. To assist in coordination and delivery of basic skills instruction to youth and adults.	Education Amendments of 1978, Title II.	State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private organizations.	Bureau of School Improvement, Basic Skills Program Office, 245-8537.
(13.549) Ethnic Heritage Program. To afford students opportunity to learn about own cultural heritage and those of other groups.	Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title IX, as amended.	State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private organizations.	Bureau of School Improvement, Ethnic Heritage Program, 245-9506
(45.127) Promotion of the Humanities--elementary and secondary education program. To promote imaginative demonstration projects in the humanities.	National Foundation on the Arts and Humanities Act of 1965, as amended.	State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private organizations.	Division of Education Programs, National Endowment for the Humanities, Washington, D. C. 20506, 724-0373.

SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS (continued)

Program	Authorizing Legislation	Who May Apply	Applications or Information
STUDENT ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS; POST SECONDARY EDUCATION			
(13.482) Special Services to Disadvantaged Students. To assist disadvantaged students, including the handicapped, to complete postsecondary education.	Higher Education Act of 1965, Title IV, as amended.	Postsecondary schools.	Division of Student Services and Veterans Programs, 245-2511.
(13.488) Talent Search. To help identify and encourage promising students to complete secondary and pursue postsecondary education.	Higher Education Act of 1965, Title IV-A, as amended.	Postsecondary schools, public and private non-profit organizations.	Division of Student Services and Veterans Programs, 245-2511.
(13.492) Upward Bound. To motivate inadequately prepared students to pursue postsecondary education.	Higher Education Act of 1965, Title IV-A, as amended.	Postsecondary schools, public and private nonprofit organizations.	Division of Student Services and Veterans Programs, 245-2511.
(13.491) Community Service and Continuing Education. To strengthen higher education in solution of community problems and expansion of continuing education programs.	Higher Education Act of 1965, Title I-A, as amended.	Postsecondary schools (Must apply to state education agencies.)	Bureau of Higher Education, Division of Training and Facilities, 245-9868.

SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS (continued)

Program	Authorizing Legislation	Who May Apply	Applications or Information
(13.539) Basic Education Opportunity Grants. Financial assistance for eligible postsecondary undergraduate students.	Higher Education Act, Title IV-A, as amended.	Undergraduate students enrolled at least halftime. (Students apply through schools.)	Bureau of Student Financial Assistance, 472-5080.
(13.418) Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grants. Financial assistance for postsecondary students.	Education Amendments of 1972 and 1976.	Postsecondary schools, undergraduate students enrolled at least halftime. (Students apply through schools.)	Bureau of Student Financial Assistance, 472-5080.
(13.548) State Student Incentive Grants. To encourage states to increase appropriations to needy postsecondary students.	Higher Education Act, Title IV-A, as amended.	State education agencies, postsecondary students. (Students apply through school.)	Bureau of Student Financial Assistance, 472-5080.
(13.[illegible]25). Improvement of Postsecondary Education. To encourage educational reforms in teaching and learning.	Education Amendments of 1972 and 1976.	State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools.	Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education. 245-8091.

SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS (continued)

Program	Authorizing Legislation	Who May Apply	Applications or Information
(13.540) Veterans Cost of Instruction Program. To encourage postsecondary schools to serve special needs of veterans.	Higher Education Act of 1965, Title X, as amended.	Postsecondary schools.	Veterans Cost of Instruction Program Branch, 245-2806.
(64.111 and 64.120) Veterans Education Assistance	38 U.S.C. 1661 and 38 U.S.C. 1621	Eligible veterans.	Regional state and local Veterans Administration Offices.
VOCATIONAL AND CAREER EDUCATION			
(13.493) Vocational Education Basic Grants to states to improve and maintain programs.	Vocational Education Act of 1963, as amended by Title II of Education Amendments of 1976.	Local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private nonprofit organizations. (All must apply to state vocational education agencies.)	Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Division of Vocational and Technical Education, 245-2278.
(13.494) Consumer and Homemaker Education. To help states conduct training programs in these areas.	Vocational Education Act of 1963, as amended by Title II of Education Amendments of 1976.	Local education agencies. (Must apply to state vocational agencies.)	Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Division of State Program Operations, 245-3478.

SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS (continued)

Program	Authorizing Legislation	Who May Apply	Applications or Information
(13.498) Program Improvement Projects. Provides support for research, curriculum development and demonstration.	Vocational Education Act of 1963, as amended by Title II of Education Amendments of 1976.	Public and private nonprofit organizations, individuals.	Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Division of Research and Demonstration, 245-2617.
(13.499) Vocational Programs for Persons with Special Needs. To provide programs for disadvantaged persons.	Vocational Education Act of 1963, as amended by Title II of Education Amendments of 1976.	Local education agencies, postsecondary institutions, public and private nonprofit organizations. (Apply to state agencies.)	Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Division of Vocational and Technical Education, 245-3488.
(13.558) Bilingual Vocational Training. To assist in conducting vocational training to persons of limited English speaking ability.	Vocational Education Act of 1963, as amended by Title II of Education Amendments of 1976.	State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private nonprofit organizations.	Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Division of Research and Demonstration, 245-2614.
(13.554) Career Education Model Demonstration Program. To demonstrate effective career education techniques at elementary and secondary levels.	Career Education Incentive Act, P.L. 95-207.	State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private nonprofit organizations.	Office of Career Education, 245-2331.

SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS (continued)

Program	Legislation	Who May Apply	Applications or Information
(13.596). Career Education State Allotment Program To implement career education in local school districts.	Career Education Incentive Act, P.L. 95-207.	Local education agencies.	Office of Career Education, 245-2331. Or contact state departments of education.
(13.563) Community Education Program. Provides grants for establishing, expending and maintaining community education programs.	Education Amendments of 1978, Community Schools and Comprehensive Community Education Act.	State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private nonprofit organizations.	Bureau of School Improvement, Community Education Program, 245-0691.
(17.232)[1] Comprehensive Employment and Training Programs. To provide job training for the disadvantaged and unemployed.	Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, as amended.	States and units of local governments.	Regional Employment and Training Offices
(17.243) Special Programs and Activities for the Disadvantaged. To promote training and related services to the disadvantaged.	Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, Title III as amended.	State and local governments, federal agencies, private nonprofit and profit making organizations, educational institutions.	Office of National Programs, Employment and Training Administration, 376-6225.

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[1] The use of CETA funds in employment and training programs for offenders is described in detail in Employment and Training Administration, U. S. Department of Labor, *Employment and Training Programs for Offenders, a Guide for Prime Sponsors under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973*, ET Handbook No. 341 (Washington, D. C.: Employment and Training Administration, July 15, 1977.)

SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS (continued)

Program	Authorizing Legislation	Who May Apply	Applications or Information
LIBRARY			
(13.464) Public Library Services, State Grant Program. To establish and improve library services for institutions and special groups.	Library Services and Construction Act, Title I.	State library administrative agencies. (All must apply through state agencies)	Office of Libraries and Learning Resources, 472-5150.
(13.570) School Library Resources and Instructional Equipment, State Grant Program. To help provide resources, textbooks and instructional materials.	Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title IV-B.	State education agencies. (All must apply through state education agencies)	Office of Libraries and Learning Resources, 472-5150.
HANDICAPPED			
(13.449) State Aid Programs for the Handicapped. To assist in initiation, expansion, improvement of programs for handicapped.	Education of the Handicapped Act, Title VI-B, as amended.	State education agencies. (All must apply through state education agencies)	Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, Division of Assistance to the States, 472-2263.

SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS (continued)

Program	Legislation	Who May Apply	Applications or Information
SPECIAL PROGRAMS			
(13.541) Education Television and Radio (Programming). To assist in the development of innovative educational television.	Special Projects Act, Education Amendments of 1978.	State and local governments, public and private agencies, institutions and individuals.	Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, Libraries and Resources, Division of Educational Technology, 245-0228.
(13.565) Women's Education Equity. To provide educational equity for women at all levels of education.	Women's Education Equity Act of 1974 as amended.	State and local governments, nonprofit organizations and individuals.	Women's Program Staff, 245-2181.
(13.950) Educational Research and Development. Grants to encourage research in education.	General Education Provisions Act as amended by Education Amendments of 1976.	State and local governments, public and private, profit and nonprofit organizations and individuals.	National Institute of Education, 1200 19th St. NW, Washington, 20208, 202-254-6140
ARTS			
(13.566) Arts in Education Program. To encourage arts education at the elementary and secondary levels.	Education Amendments of 1978, Title III.	State and local education agencies, public and private nonprofit organiza-	Bureau of School Improvement, Arts and Humanities Staff, 472-7793.

SOME FEDERAL FUNDING FOR THE EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS (continued)

Artists-in Residence programs have been established in a number of prisons through grants from the National Endowment for the Arts Program. Information and a descriptive brochure may be obtained from the Office for Special Constituencies, National Endowment for the Arts, 2401 E Street NW, Washington D. C. 20506. The programs are described in the Catalog of Federal Domestic Assistance, numbers 45.001 through 45.015.

The American Correctional Association's Project Culture, funded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, has sponsored arts programs in adult correctional institutions. Information may be oftained from Margo Koines, American Correctional Association, 4321 Hartwick Road, Suite 319, College Park, Maryland 20740.

See also: Pierce, Catherine, Project Read. Troubled Youth and the Arts: A Resource Guide (Silver Spring, Maryland: Read, Inc., 1979) pp. 47-110, for other Federal assistance in the arts. This comprehensive resource guide also includes listings of state and local assistance, private support, national arts organizations, and other information.

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The National Institute of Corrections is authorized to provide technical assistance and training for state and local correctional personnel. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration funds are also available, through State Planning Agencies, in the form of block and discretionary grants, for technical assistance and research and development programs.

The Federal Correctional Education Assistance Act, SB 1373, when passed, would provide $150,000,000 over a three year period to upgrade existing correctional education programs. This bill is to be re-introduced by Senator Pell during the next session of Congress.

APPENDIX B

REPRESENTATIVE ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS USED IN CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION

REPRESENTATIVE ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS USED IN CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION[1]

Adult Basic Learning Examination (ABLE)	Harcourt, Brace and Jovanovich 747 Third Avenue New York, New York 10017
Adult Basic Reading Inventory (ABRI)	Scholastic Testing Service 480 Meyer Road Bensenville, Ill. 60106
Adult Informal Reading Inventory (AIRI)	Reading Center University of Missouri 52nd and Holmes Kansas City, Missouri 64110
APL Adult Performance Level Survey	ACT P. O. Box 168 Iowa City, Iowa 52240
California Achievement Tests (CAT)	California Test Bureau/ McGraw Hill Del Monte Research Park Monterey, California 93940
Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills	California Test Bureau/ McGraw Hill Del Monte Research Park Monterey, California 93940
Fundamental Achievement Series (FAS)	The Psychological Corporation 757 Third Avenue New York, New York 10017
Idaho State Penitentiary Informal Reading Inventory	Reading Education Center Boise State College Boise, Idaho
Reading Everyday Activities in Life (REAL)	Cal Press, Inc. 76 Madison Avenue New York, New York 10016
Slosson Oral Reading	Slosson Educational Publications 140 Pine Street East Aurora, New York 14052
Tests of Adult Basic Education (TABE)	California Test Bureau/ McGraw Hill Del Monte Research Park Monterey, California 93940

REPRESENTATIVE ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS USED IN CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION
(continued)

Wepman Perceptual Test Battery	Language Research Associates 175 East Delaware Place Chicago, Illinois 60611
Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT)	Guidance Associates 1526 Gilpin Avenue Wilmington, Delaware 19806

FOOTNOTES

1. Drawn from Janet K. Carsetti, Literacy: Problems and Solutions. A Resource Handbook for Correctional Educators (Washington, D. C.: The American Bar Association, Clearinghouse for Offender Literacy Programs, 1975) and Rita M. Berman (Wirtz), "Bibliography of Relevant Courseware" (Los Angeles: University of Southern California, College of Continuing Education Programs in Corrections, 1978, mimeographed). An additional note: Diagnosis of adult learning disabilities has been the subject of some recent studies. See, for example, London City Schools, The London Procedure--a Screening Diagnostic and Teaching Guide for Adult Learning Problems (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, Instructional Materials Laboratory, n.d.) which is included in the annotated bibliography.

APPENDIX C

CURRICULAR MATERIALS IN CALIFORNIA TITLE I PROGRAMS

A SELECTED LISTING OF CURRICULAR MATERIALS UTILIZED IN ESEA PROGRAMS

Component:

I. Language/Reading

The following are representative titles of software used by ESEA staff. Kits, workbooks, texts and programmed materials are listed. Primary areas are word attack, vocabulary, comprehension, survival reading, and pleasure reading. Grammar and usage are also included.

Title	Publisher	Used For
1. Reading Attainment Kit	Grolier	Reading Skills Practice
2. Reading Power-Adult Reading Improvement Series	Simon/Schuster	Basic Reading Skills
3. Adult Reading, A Sequential Series	Steck-Vaughn	Basic Reading Skills
4. Real Life Reading	Scholastic	Survival Reading
5. Mott Word Bank	Allied Education	Sight Words; Vocabulary
6. Hip Reader Program	Book Lab.	Basic Reading Skills
7. Skills for Everyday Living	MDI	Survival Reading
8. Practice in Survival Reading Series	New Readers Press	Survival Reading
9. Pal Paperbacks	Xerox	Pleasure Reading
10. Action Series	Scholastic	Pleasure Reading
11. Spelling Dictation Skilltexts	Special Service Supply	Practical Spelling Practice
12. Competency Series	Scholastic	Survival Skills
13. Language in Daily Living	Steck-Vaughn	Grammar
14. World of Vocabulary Series	Globe	Vocabulary
15. Varied Comprehension Titles	Jamestown	Comprehension

(Reproduced from Compensatory Education--Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title I, Impact on Illiteracy (Sacramento, California: California Department of Corrections, 1979.

Title	Publisher	Used For
16. Spell It Out	Globe	Spelling
17. Numerous Titles	Frank Richards	Basic Reading
18. Local newspapers, paperbacks, popular magazines		Survival and Pleasure Reading
19. Bridge, Cross Cultural Reading	Houghton-Miffin	Language

The following hardware are utilized within the language/reading component:

Aud-x, Controlled Reader, tachistoscope
Tape recorders, Film-O-Sound
Tutorette
Slide projectors
Closed-circuit T.V.

Component:

II. Math

The following are representative titles of software used by staff. Kits, workbooks, texts and programmed materials are listed. Primary areas are computation, measurement and application.

Title	Publisher	Used For
1. Math in Daily Living and other titles	Steck-Vaughn	Basic and Survival Math
2. Math Skill Text for Daily Living	Special Service Supply	Survival Math
3. Success in Math skill packet program	MDI	Basic Math
4. Real Life Math	Scholastic	Survival Math
5. Meeting Computational Accountability, Math Drill, other titles	A.R. Davis Math	Basic Math
6. Math Competency Series	Cambridge	Survival Math

Title	Publisher	Used for
7. Manipulatives	Various Source	'Hands On' Math Practice
8. LSI, Arithmetic Kit	McGraw Hill	Basic Math Practice
9. SRA Computational Skills Kit	SRA	Basic Math Practice

The following hardware are utilized within the math component:

Mathiputer, Multiputer, Calculators, math tapes, Alphamaster

Component:

III. Multicultural

The following are representative titles of software utilized. Books, filmstrips, kits, study guides, are used.

Type or Title	Publisher or Source
1. Superstars of Rock; Soul	Scholastic
2. Our Hispanic American Heritage	Xerox
3. Black in America	Xerox
4. Hispanic Heroes of the USA	EMC
5. Blacks in Time	New Readers Press
6. Selections From the Black, Voices From the Bottom	Jamestown
7. Reading Exercises in Black History	Continential Press
8. Reading Exercises on Spanish Americans	Continential Press
9. Viva! Famous Mexican Americans	Steck-Vaughn

Type or Title	Publisher or Source
10. Famous Black Americans	Steck-Vaughn
11. Study Guides and Posters	Lakeshore Curriculum

Component:

IV. Career Awareness

The following are representative titles. Books, kits, posters, tapes are used, such as the following:

Type or Title	Publisher or Source
1. Skills for Everyday Living	MDI
2. Basic Skills for Everyone (duplicating)	Lakeshore Curriculum
3. Desk Top Career Kit	Careers
4. Working with Others; Understanding Yourself	Steck-Vaughn
5. Be Informed Series	New Readers Press
6. Skills Exploration Kit	SRA
7. Popeye Career Awareness Library	Lakeshore Curriculum
8. Shoptalk	Allyn & Bacon
9. Prevocational English	JML
10. World of Work, Out of Work	New Readers Press
11. Pacemaker Vocational Readers	Fearon
12. Numerous Competency-Based Materials	Various Publishers

APPENDIX D

LEGISLATION ESTABLISHING WINDHAM CORRECTIONAL SCHOOL DISTRICT

Article 6203b-2

Section 1. The Board of Corrections may establish and operate schools at various units of the Department of Corrections.

Section 2. All persons incarcerated in the Department of Corrections who are not high school graduates are eligible to attend such schools.

Section 3. The Board of Corrections may accept grants from both public and private organizations and expend such funds for the purposes of operating the schools.

Section 4. The total cost of operating the schools authorized by this Act shall be borne entirely by the State and shall be paid from the Foundation School Program Fund. Such costs shall be considered annually by the Foundation School Fund Budget Committee and included in estimating the funds needed for purposes of the Foundation School Program. An estimate of costs for the 1968-69 school year shall be certified to the comptroller by the committee within 30 days after the effective date of this Act. No part of the operating costs herein provided for shall be charged to any of the school districts of this State.

Section 5. A Formula for the allocation of professional units and other operating expenses shall be developed by the Central Education Agency and approved by the State Board of Education.

Section 6. This Act is effective for the school year 1968-1969 and thereafter.

Section 7. Emergency clause.

Effective March 18, 1969

APPENDIX E

FEDERAL BUREAU OF PRISONS, INMATE EDUCATION SURVEY

Attachment #1
5350.5
NOV 31 1978

INMATE EDUCATION SURVEY

1. What is your sex?

☐ Male

☐ Female

2. How old are you? (Check the box of your age group)

☐ 26 years old or under

☐ 27 to 35 years old

☐ 36 to 45 years old

☐ 46 to 55 years old

☐ 56 years old or older

3. Check the box that shows the highest grade you have completed.

☐ 0 to 6 years of education

☐ 7 to 12 years of education

☐ Graduate of High School or completed the GED

☐ 1 to 2 years of college

☐ 2 to 4 years of college

☐ College or technical school graduate

☐ Other (specify): ______________________________

4. How long have you been enrolled in the education or vocational program?

☐ For less than 6 months

☐ From 6 months to 1 year

☐ From 1 to 2 years

☐ From 2 to 4 years

☐ For more than 4 years

☐ Not currently enrolled

(Reproduced from Federal Prison System "Policy Statement" 5350.5, November 31, 1978, Annual Survey of Inmate Education and Vocational Training Needs.)

5. What kind of program are you now enrolled in?

   ☐ Academic program (ABE)
   ☐ Academic program (GED)
   ☐ Academic program (College)
   ☐ Vocational/Technical program
   ☐ Not currently enrolled

6. How many hours each week do you spend in any kind of education program?

   ☐ Less than 10 hours
   ☐ 11 to 20 hours
   ☐ 21 to 30 hours
   ☐ 31 to 40 hours
   ☐ 40 hours or more per week
   ☐ Not currently enrolled

7. How long is the sentence you are now serving?

   ☐ 6 months or less
   ☐ 6 months to 1 year
   ☐ 1 to 2 1/2 years
   ☐ 2 1/2 to 5 years
   ☐ 5 to 10 years
   ☐ 10 years or more

8. How many courses have you completed while at this institution?

   ☐ None
   ☐ 1 to 2
   ☐ 3 to 4
   ☐ 5 to 6
   ☐ 7 or more

9. Which of the following educational programs do you think would be the best for you while you are at this institution? (Check only one)

☐ ABE

☐ GED

☐ College

☐ Vocational Training

☐ Social Education

☐ Other (Please specify) ____________________

10. Do you feel you have been able to make suggestions to the instructors or staff which have changed or improved the education programs?

☐ Yes

☐ No

11. Which of the following would make the education programs better?

☐ More courses

☐ More instructors

☐ More class time

☐ Better class schedules

☐ Better attitude from the staff

☐ More reading material

☐ Better equipment

☐ Other (please specify) ____________________

12. What is the best education program at your institution? (Check only one)

☐ ABE

☐ GED

☐ College

☐ Vocational Training

☐ Social education

☐ Other (Please specify) ____________________

13. What is the worst educational program at your institution? (Check only one)

☐ ABE
☐ GED
☐ College
☐ Vocational Training
☐ Social Education
☐ Other (Please specify) ______________________________

14. Please write any general comments you would like to make that would help the staff improve the educational program:

____
____
____
____
____
____
____
____
____
____

APPENDIX F

MINNESOTA MUTUAL AGREEMENT PROGRAM REPORT, WITH SAMPLES

MINNESOTA CORRECTIONS BOARD

MUTUAL AGREEMENT CONTRACT

This contract is a mutual agreement between [redacted], [redacted] [redacted] at MCF-SCL, the Department of Corrections and the Minnesota Corrections Board. Contingent upon the successful completion of the following listed contract objectives and compliance with the stated contract conditions, the Minnesota Corrections Board will grant Release to [redacted] ______________ by 6-20-81 but not before ______________.

[redacted], hereby agrees to accomplish the following objectives while incarcerated in the institution:

Contract Objectives: (attach additional page if necessary.)

I understand that during the life of this agreement, I will be expected to maintain either a full-time work, educational or treatment assignment or any combination of the above which result in full-time involvement. More specifically, I intend to complete the following MAP Contract components:

EDUCATION

I am presently enrolled and actively participating in the Ralph H. Rosenberger High School Program, and prior to my release from the institution I will complete all of the requirements necessary in order to be granted my High School Diploma.

RESTITUTION

As a special condition of my parole agreement, I agree to make restitution payments totaling three hundred forty and 62/100 (340.62) dollars to the victims of my offense in monthly payments of thirty-four and no/100 (34.00) for a period of 9 months and thirty-four and 62/100 (34.62) dollars in the 10th month.

The agent or agency who will collect and distribute these monthly restitution payments will be determined prior to my release from the institution.

I further understand that my release from the institution will be a conditional parole and that failure on my part to comply with the above schedule of monthly restitution payments shall be cause for the revocation of my parole.

RELEASE PLAN

It is further understood that prior to my release from the institution I shall develop a release plan that is acceptable to the Minnesota Corrections Board.

(Sample, page 1 of actual inmate contract)

MINNESOTA CORRECTIONS BOARD

MUTUAL AGREEMENT CONTRACT

This contract is a mutual agreement between [redacted], [redacted] [redacted] [redacted] at WRC, the Department of Corrections and the Minnesota Corrections Board. Contingent upon the successful completion of the following listed contract objectives and compliance with the stated contract conditions, the Minnesota Corrections Board will grant RELEASE to [redacted] [redacted] by 12-8-80 but not before 11-8-80 ________.

[redacted] [redacted] [redacted], hereby agrees to accomplish the following objectives while incarcerated in the institution:

Contract Objectives: (attach additional page if necessary.)

I understand that during the life of this agreement, I will be expected to be involved in either a full-time work, educational, or treatment assignment, or any combination of the above which results in full-time involvement. More specifically I intend to complete the following MAP Contract components:

SKILL TRAINING

On May 8, 1980, I enrolled in the Willow River-Sandstone Vocational Training Program, and I will actively participate in the Truck Trailer Repair training program, and in any related academic training that is recommended by program staff. I will receive satisfactory accomplishment ratings from my instructors and institution staff relative to my behavior and participation an all phases of the program. Prior to my release from the institution, I will obtain a certificate of completion of the Truck Trailer training program.

RELEASE PLANS

It is further understood that prior to my release from the institution, I shall develop a release plan that will be acceptable to the Minnesota Corrections Board. This release plan will include restitution.

(Sample, page 1 of actual inmate contract)

Contract Conditions:

1. I understand that during the life of this contract should I be found guilty by institutional disciplinary court of an offense, which, if dealt with in a court of law, could result in a conviction for a criminal offense (felony or misdemeanor), this contract is automatically suspended as of the date of being found guilty and is subject to renegotiation or cancellation at the Minnesota Corrections Board's discretion.

2. I understand that it is my responsibility to protect the custody level rating I have at the time of entering into this contract. Should this contract call for a reduction in custody level (for example, minimum status), it is my responsibility to achieve the required custody level. I further understand that should I fail to acquire the custody status required, this contract is suspended until that custody status is achieved. If the required custody status cannot be achieved within the time limitation set to meet the objectives of this contract, the contract is subject to renegotiation or cancellation at the Minnesota Corrections Board's discretion.

3. I understand that should I commit an act which may be considered a breach of contract before the effective date of release, the Minnesota Corrections Board may suspend the order of release pending the outcome of any administrative hearings required to establish breach of contract. If a breach of contract is established, it is subject to renegotiation or cancellation at the Minnesota Corrections Board's discretion.

4. If previously unknown information regarding pending felony prosecution or detainers from other jurisdictions becomes available, the contract may be renegotiated or cancelled at the Minnesota Corrections Board's discretion. I further understand that should any detainer be in full force and effect upon completion, by me, of my obligations under this contract, that any release pursuant to this contract shall be to that detainer.

5. I understand that should this contract be cancelled, I will return to the upper level time period assigned to me at my initial hearing before the Minnesota Corrections Board. I further understand that the hearing at the upper level time period can be for parole consideration but that the Minnesota Corrections Board will decide upon the merits of my case whether a parole will or will not be granted at that time.

6. I understand that it is illegal to use or possess nonprescribed chemicals, drug paraphernalia, marijuana, alcohol or weapons on State grounds and that if I am convicted in institution disciplinary court of such an infraction, this contract is suspended and is subject to renegotiation or cancellation at the Minnesota Corrections Board's discretion.

____________________ By: ____________________

Date Inmate

____

Witness

(Sample, page 2 of inmate contracts)

MINNESOTA CORRECTIONS BOARD

MUTUAL AGREEMENT CONTRACT

This contract is a mutual agreement between ______________________________, the Department of Corrections and the Minnesota Corrections Board. Contingent upon the successful completion of the following listed contract objectives and compliance with the stated contract conditions, the Minnesota Corrections Board will grant ____________________ to ______________ ____________________ by ____________________ but not before ____________ __________.

____________________________, hereby agrees to accomplish the following objectives while incarcerated in the institution:

Contract Objectives: (attach additional page if necessary.)

(Sample, page 3 of inmate contracts)

APPENDIX G

SELECTED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY: ACADEMIC EDUCATION OF ADULT OFFENDERS

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY: Academic Education of Adult Offenders

A bibliography on the education of adult offenders could never be complete. The citations and annotations included here consist of a representative sampling of the literature, with an emphasis on relatively recent materials and on practical aspects of academic education in correctional institutions. With a few exceptions, literature from the larger field of education, adult education, secondary/GED, and special education is not included.

The bibliography has been organized into descriptive subject headings; an annotation is shown only in one location under the primary subject addressed by the particular document. Occasionally this called for somewhat arbitrary decision as to placement. There is a listing of authors at the beginning of each section, as well as a cross reference for additional works on the subject which are included in other primary categories.

Bibliography Sections

I. State of the Art

II. Administration; Funding

III. Staff; Volunteers

IV. Literacy

V. Adult Basic Education

VI. Secondary Education/GED

VII. Postsecondary Education

VIII. Special Problems

IX. Incentives

X. Evaluation; Research

SECTION I. State of the Art

There is an abundance of material on the state of the art of correctional education. The problem is one of selection from that available. Included in this section are:

Adams, Stuart N., 1973.
Ayers, J. Douglas, 1975.
Bosarge, Betty B., June 1979.
Charters, Alexander N.; Holmwood, Donald P.; and Willis, Michael J., 1978.
Clark, Wayne W., and Clark, Nan E., n.d.
Comptroller General of the United States, February 6, 1979.
Cortwright, Richard W., 1975.
Dell'Apa, Frank, 1973.
Education Commission of the States, 1976.
Kerle, Ken, 1973.
Kilty, Ted K., 1977.
McCollum, Sylvia G, 1973.
McCollum, Sylvia G., 1976.
MacCormick, Austin H., 1931.
Manual of Standards for Adult Correctional Institutions, 1977
Marsh, John, and Adams, Stuart N., 1976.
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, 1979.
    (By Raymond Bell and others of Lehigh University)
PLATO CMI. Author's Guide, 1978.
Polcyn, Kenneth A., 1976.
Reagen, Michael V., and Stoughton, Donald M., eds., 1976.
Roberts, Albert R., 1971.
Roberts, Albert R., ed., 1973.
Roberts, Albert R., and Coffey, Osa D., 1976. (a)
Roberts, Albert R., and Coffey, Osa D., 1976. (b)
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1977.
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975.
Ryan, T. A.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C.; Oresic,
    Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Wells, H. Gary, 1975.
Texas. Department of Corrections, 1975.
U. S. Office of Education, 1978.
University of Southern California, College of Continuing Education in
    Corrections, 1978.

See also:

Emmert, Ellen B., 1976, in Section II.
Feldman, Sylvia D., 1975, in Section II.
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975, in Section V.
Ryan, T. A.; Clark, Dale W.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C.
    Verl; Oresic, Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Sessions, Arnold R.; Streed,
    James L; Wells, H. Gary, 1975, in Section V.

SECTION I: State of the Art

Adams, Stuart N. "Correctional Education: Status and Prospects." The Justice Studies Group, Syracuse University Research Corporation, 1973. (Mimeographed.)

A brief overview of prison education precedes more detailed descriptions of the District of Columbia's Lorton program and the program at San Quentin. A recommended model for "correctional education, 1983" draws from studies in California in 1971 and New York in 1973, both of which foreshadow major correctional changes toward fewer large institutions and greater emphasis on alternative placement during probation and parole. Structural elements and procedures for education in those alternative plans are identified, as well as for prison programs. Major areas needing improvement are cited. Mention is made of four alternative models under consideration: (1) Social, Education, Research and Development, Inc., "A Plan of Action for Education and Training in the Maryland Correctional Training Center (Hagerstown)"; (2) "A Program for the Prince George's County (Maryland) Jail and Proposed Detention Center"; (3) D. C. Department of Corrections "The Educational Program of the D. C. Jail: Analysis and Recommendations"; and (4) Sylvia McCollum's "New Designs for Correctional Education and Training Programs."

(This document contains some interesting ideas for the design of educational programs for youths and adults in the criminal justice system.)

Ayers, J. Douglas. "Observations on Educational Programs in Penal Institutions in the United States." University of Victoria, August 1975. (Mimeographed.)

A review of the literature accompanies this discussion of correctional education. The author describes, based on interviews with staff and inmates, academic programs in four federal institutions (Sandstone, Minnesota; Leavenworth, Kentucky; Fort Worth, Texas; San Pedro, California) and five state institutions (at Fort Grant, Arizona; Corona, California; Huntsville, Texas; Menard, Illinois; Manning, South Carolina). The benefits of humanities, social science, and social education or life coping skills are cited in particular. Appendices include (1) excerpts from an article on a humanities program at Camp Hills Correctional Institution in Pennslyvania, and (2) student evaluations of programs in terms of cognitive and affective components, recommendations for longer hours or more class sessions, and a number of other issues.

(A summary of the student evaluation section is contained in an article by the author in the Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 30, no. 1, (1975), pp. 3-8.)

Bosarge, Betty B. "Corrections Leads the Field with Television Training Via Microwave and Satellite." Corrections Digest, vol. 10, no. 12, (June 8, 1979), p. 1-5.

This article describes an American Correctional Association project utilizing interactive television via microwave broadcast to St. Albans Correctional Facility in Vermont. The Association's staff maintain that although the cost of initial installation is high, the system could be used by all phases of the criminal justice system. This initial program is for staff training; it could be expanded to educational programs for inmates, family visitations, medical consultants, and general communications. The article also describes a satellite corrections training delivery system to 25 receiving centers throughout Appalachia--a project also funded by the National Institute of Justice. The satellite was made available through NASA.

(For further information contact Jay Worrall, American Correctional Association, 4321 Hartwick Road, College Park, Maryland 20740.)

Charters, Alexander N., Holmwood, Donald P., and Willis, Michael J. Annotated Bibliography for the Education of Public Offenders: by Descriptive Sub-Headings. Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University, Clearinghouse of Resources for Educators of Adults, 1978.

The first part of this bibliography consists of citations under descriptive sub-headings, alphabetically by author. The second section consists of annotations/abstracts of the cited materials. The headings are: agencies--parole and probation; (2) communications--community relations, programs, involvement, and action with corrections; (3) counseling--attitudes, motivation, personality, self-concept, psychological scales and tests, and therapy; (4) futures--attitudes, reform, treatment; (5) history--correctional; (6) resources--library services to inmates; (7) legislation; (8) lifelong learning--education, professionals in corrections, ex-inmate higher education, vocational education, and information; (9) programs--educational and work release programs from prison to the community; (10) research--criminal behavior, chemical abuse (drug treatment), alcohol, juvenile delinquency, mentally retarded in correctional facilities, recidivism, and women in prison; and (11) trends--alternative models and volunteers in corrections (inmate and civilian).

(Many, if not most, of the publications listed do not deal with the education of offenders per se, but rather they present generalized, wide-ranging discussions of various issues and problems of rehabilitation. This document is available only in microfiche, ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 159 428.)

Clark, Wayne W., and Clark, Nan E. Recent and Potential Developments in Adult Education. An Annotated Bibliography. San Diego, California: Information Collection, Evaluation and Dissemination System, n.d.

This bibliography consists of 202 annotations, divided into the following subject areas: adult learning, teaching adults, future studies, program development, assessing needs and planning strategies, evaluation techniques, educational technology, adult basic and competency based education, special groups, community and family education.

(Available from Robert Ehlers, Adult Education Field Services, Department of Education, 721 Capitol Mall, Sacramento 95814.)

Comptroller General of the United States. Report to the Congress of the United States. Correctional Institutions Can Do More to Improve the Employability of Offenders. Washington, D. C.: General Accounting Office, February 6, 1979.

This report is based on visits by General Accounting Office staff to five facilities and offices of the Federal Bureau of Prisons and eleven state institutions in Ohio, Minnesota, Texas, and Kentucky. While conceding that constraints face prison administrators, a critical review of programs precedes recommendations addressed to the Bureau of Prisons; the Department of Health, Education and Welfare; the Department of Labor and to state systems in the following areas: (1) improved inmate needs assessment, classification, expanded counseling services and the use of federal funding for these purposes; (2) better management of education and training programs, including uniform curriculum materials, program enrollment and completion criteria, expansion of on-the-job training programs, study of apprenticeship programs, use of reward systems, and work assignments which provide more training; (3) in the area of transitional programs, improved social education and pre-release classes work placement on parole, and improved gratuity systems; (4) specific suggestions for improved management information systems, including monitoring operations; and (5) critical evaluation and assessment of program results. Appendices include (1) comments from the Departments of Justice, Labor, and Health, Education and Welfare; (2) federal funding of education and training programs, and (3) background on the correctional systems studied.

(A comprehensive wide-ranging discussion of "what is wrong" with institutional programs, together with some specific data and suggestions for change. Single copies of the report may be obtained from General Accounting Office, Distribution Section, Room 1518, 441 G Street NW, Washington, D. C. 20548.)

Cortright, Richard W. "Focus on the Future: Futurology for Correctional Education." In Education for Adults in Correctional Institutions: A Book of Readings, Volume I, pp.193-203. Edited by T. A. Ryan. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975.

Stating that "The adult functional illiterate is a 'social isolate' . . . (and) . . . illiteracy itself is a 'social deficit' " the author lists suggestions for delivery of more effective adult basic education in corrections programs through: (1) development of innovative programs, (2) matching teacher and learner for compatability, (3) using volunteer aides, (4) relating adult basic education with adult high school programs, (5) accountability of correctional educators, (6) improvement of status of correctional educators, (7) employment of correctional educators in the public schools.

(Specific examples of each of these recommendations are given. Volume I and II of these Readings have been combined and are available through ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 123 474.)

Dell'Apa, Frank. Educational Programs in Adult Correctional Institutions: A Survey. Boulder, Colorado: Western Interstate Commission for for Higher Education, 1973. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 099 550.

A national survey of adult correctional institutions was conducted by questionnaire, eliciting responses from 150 facilities (60% of those sampled) on the status of academic educational programs, particularly at the elementary and secondary levels. Information was obtained regarding the degree of participation, the types of programs available, previous educational attainments of the inmates, resources available at the institutions, and the numbers and types of training of the teachers. It was concluded that the baseline data reflected in the survey can serve as a basis for planning educational programs, both within institutions and from without. (Adapted from ERIC abstract.)

(A fairly frequently cited document which paints a somewhat less favorable picture of educational programs for prisoners than more recent data.)

Education Commission of the States. An Overview of Findings and Recommendations of Major Research Studies and National Commissions Concerning Education of Offenders. Report No. 81. Denver, Colorado: Education Commission of the States, 1976. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 142 720.

After a brief introduction describing the goals and proposed activities of the three-year Correctional Education Project (which began in January 1975), ten studies representing comprehensive research about correctional education and systems are analyzed. The authors note that because the studies are comprehensive in what they attempt to do, they can be considered seriously by policymakers particularly at the national level. Titles of the studies are "Corrections," "Educational Programs in Adult Correctional Institutions," "GED Testing in State Penal Institutions," "An Evaluation of 'New Gate' and Other Prisoner Education Programs," "School Behind Bars--A Descriptive Overview of Correctional Education in the American Prison System," "Education for the Youthful Offender in Correctional Institutions," "The Criminal Offender--What Should Be Done?" "A Time to Act," "State-Local Relations in the Criminal Justice System," and "The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice: Task Force on Corrections." (Adapted from ERIC abstract.)

(These summaries bring together in one document a a mass of information on the current status of education of adult offenders.)

Kerle, Ken. "Penal Education: United States and Europe." The Prison Journal, vol. 53, no. 2, (1973), pp. 4-25.

This overview of the art suggests a need for more programmed instruction, greater use of the GED, and implementation of an adult basic education model developed through the University of Hawaii. The author discusses the mixed picture as to the effect of education on recidivism, and the current status of postsecondary education. His recommendations include: increased study release programs, classes for staff and inmates together, the expansion of correctional education majors in undergraduate and graduate schools, and an upgrading of the status of correctional educators.

(This interesting overview includes a fairly extensive bibliography.)

Kilty, Ted K. "A Study of the Characteristics of Reading Programs in Federal, State and City-County Penal Institutions." Kalamzoo, Michigan: Western Michigan University, School of Education, 1977.

This study investigated the characteristics of reading programs offered to inmates of federal, state, and city/county penal institutions. The total number of institutions that responded to a questionnaire sent by the investigator was: federal 27 (100% response; state, 426 (68% response); and city/county, 675 (16% response). Findings are reported for the following areas: information possessed by the institution about inmates' educational backgrounds; existence of a reading program; grade levels of reading instruction offered; teaching certification and formal reading training of the individual in charge of the reading program; assistant personnel available to the reading teacher; the manner in which inmates become involved in the reading program; the relationship of reading instruction to inmates' work assignments; determination of the instructional methods used; reading materials available; frequency and length of instruction; the number of inmates involved in the reading program in relation to the number of eligible inmates; sources of funding for the program; the existence of records of inmates' progress in the program; and the existence of other educational programs for inmates. A list of recommendations and an appendix containing related material are included. (ERIC abstract)

(Up-to-date statistics on reading programs for offenders.)

McCollum, Sylvia G. "New Designs for Correctional Education and Training Programs." Federal Probation, June 1973, pp. 6-11. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 109 373.

The challenge confronting creative educators concerned with using the correctional experience in positive ways is to structure an educational delivery system which takes into account the wide range of individual differences among people whose only common denominator is "serving time." Inherent is the problem of staff and public resistance to "rewarding" law breakers with genuine educational improvement opportunities. Delivery systems which might replace traditional approaches, sometimes at no greater cost are: (1) educational voucher systems--prisoners fulfilling certain requirements would be guaranteed bona fide educational opportunities, outside the constraints of the prison environment, (2) prison as a specialized learning center--each prison would specialize in a single occupational cluster, with prisoners assigned by education training requirements, (3) educational technology centers in prisons--offering a wider course range and permitting greater flexibility in scheduling, (4) establishment of correctional school districts--making available budget, staff, and materials normally provided to an operating school district, (5) educational diagnostic and referral centers--residential correctional facilities in which security is not the first priority, and (6) use of community colleges--facilitators in the delivery of services necessary to divert the first offender from commitment to a correctional institution. (ERIC abstract)

(Some original ideas for better organization and support of prison education.)

McCollum, Sylvia G. "A Look at Correctional Education from the Federal Level." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 28, no. 3 (1976), pp. 11-12.

The author comments on recent developments in correctional education, including the development of staff training, support for experimental demonstration projects, the early manpower programs and postsecondary programs and the more recent support provided by adult basic education, CETA and NEA, and BEOG--all resulting in increased inmate participation in educational programs at the Federal level. Recommendations are made for intensive evaluation of correctional school districts, the delivery of postsecondary and vocational programs within a cost effective framework, and the sharing of instructional materials among institutions. The author comments on the increased number of new admissions claiming 12th grade completion--40% in 1976 compared to an earlier figure of 25%, and on the trend within the Federal system to move away from motivation of inmate participation by favorable parole consideration.

(An interesting overview of trends within the Federal system.)

MacCormick, Austin H. The Education of Adult Offenders. New York: National Society of Penal Reformation, 1931.

Following his 1927-28 survey of education programs for adult offenders, the author suggests that the philosophy of education for these persons necessitates a consideration of the "prisoner as primarily an adult in need of education and only secondarily as a criminal in need of reform." The aim of education is to individualize opportunities so that students may have opportunities to select from whatever may be of interest and benefit to them. Some of the weaknesses and strengths in prison education are cited and recommendations are made for adequate prison teaching staffs with minimum reliance on inmate assistants, vocational guidance correlated with placement and guidance after release, social education which includes an inmate community organization, cultural education in the preparation of inmates for acceptable and satisfying use of leisure time.

(Mr. MacCormick's classic early work in the field is of interest, perhaps especially in comparing his recommendations of fifty years ago with current recommendations of today.)

Manual of Standards for Adult Correctional Institutions. Rockville, Maryland: Commission on Accreditation for Corrections, August 1977.

These concisely stated standards cover the full scope of the administration, organization and function of correctional institutions.

(The education and vocational training section consists of standards 4393 through 4408. They relate to program scope, inmate needs assessment, personnel requirements, evaluation of programs compared to stated objectives, educational technology, functional social skills, integrated academic and vocational training, and use of community resources. A revised edition of the Manual is soon to be released.)

Marsh, John, and Adams, Stuart N. "Prison Education Tomorrow." In School Behind Bars, pp. 97-110. Edited by Michael V. Reagen and Donald M. Stoughton. Metuchen, New Jersey: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1976.

In speculating on the shape of corrections in the future the authors comment on proposals for alternative programs at the county level. Some of the recommendations for education program improvement overall are payment for participation, flexible hours, education technology, resource centers for materials, television, study release, evaluation of job training values and vocational courses, work furloughs, follow-up studies of releasees. A closer relationship between correctional education and outside academia is discussed, including creation of experimental or laboratory schools in prisons to develop instructional techniques, research into psychosocial aspects of education, development of undergraduate and graduate programs for training of teachers and other staff, and the use of correctional educators in adult education public schools as "educational pathologists." The poor quality of education programs in jails is noted.

(Recommendations relating to better integration of correctional education and outside academic are especially interesting.)

National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice. Correctional Education Programs for Inmates. National Evaluation Program, Phase I, by Raymond Bell, Elizabeth Conard, Thomas Laffey, J. Gary Lutz, Paul VanReed Miller, Christine Simon, Anne E. Stakelon, Nancy Jean Wilson. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office. Stock No. 281-3801/1608. June, 1979.

This publication summarizes a 1977 study of the education of prisoners, based on questionnaire surveys (163 responses from 200 randomly sampled institutions), literature review, telephone interviews, and site visits to 20 institutions. The study examines in depth five areas of education including adult basic education, secondary/GED, postsecondary, vocational education and social education. Issues associated with each of these areas are discussed in terms of (1) funding and administration, (2) the nature of the institution, (3) program design, (4) access to resources and materials, and (5) evaluation. Each of the chapters presents data within the framework of these five categories. Chapter I summarizes 20 major issues involved; Chapter II presents the methodology and a synthesis of the data; Chapter III is an assessment thereof; Chapter IV presents numerous conclusions and recommendations. Thirty-eight tables support the narrative portion of the report. Appendices include a flow chart depicting inmate flow through a generalized education program, and a lengthy bibliography.

(This comprehensive up-to-date study represents probably the most relevant information available about education programs for offenders. Not only does it contain in-depth data on issues and current programming, but it also presents a multitude of recommendations for program improvement which should be extremely valuable for administrators of correctional education systems.

PLATO CMI. Author's Guide. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Control Data Corporation, 1978.

This manual provides general information on the purpose, structure, and features of PLATO computer managed instruction. CMI is described as a system to manage testing, learning aid selection and record keeping for individualized instruction. Courseware components include modules using available instructional units, each containing test questions for the stated objective. Instructional materials may include any communications medium: videotape, printed texts, CAI lessons, programmed texts, laboratory, equipment, audiotape, and so forth. A CMI course contains up to 28 modules and up to 30 units per module. Authors, instructors, section monitors and students interact with the system via interactive PLATO terminals. A detailed system description is given.

(PLATO is installed in eight states. Materials of interest, which may be obtained from Bob Dease, Control Data Corporation, 8616 La Tijera Blvd., Los Angeles, California, are: a concept paper outlining objectives and plans for a correctional education network; various catalogs and brochures on available materials and program descriptions.)

Polcyn, Kenneth A. "Communication satellite technology." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 28, no. 4 (1976) pp. 7-14

The author views communication satellites as a possible answer to problems in education, staff training, and inmate counseling and job placement. He advocates the formation of a correctional system in the United States through pooling resources to develop programs from a central point through satellite and two-day video equipment. He points out that such a system would reduce individual costs while increasing the quality of curriculum and instructional materials and scope of programs available; education and training credentials would be standard and therefore more acceptable; greater numbers of inmates would be exposed to top-quality staff people. Specific computer systems currently in operation for career counseling and academic education are cited as possible components.

(Another advocate of the use of technology in the education of offenders.)

Reagen, Michael V., and Stoughton, Donald M., eds. School Behind Bars. Metuchen, New Jersey: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1976.

The editors and their staff at Syracuse University Research Corporation made on-site visits in 1973 to 55 correctional institutions and systems in 27 states, reviewed 360 publications and documents, and discussed with 300 individuals the problems of educating adult offenders. These efforts resulted in a descriptive overview of available programs and an examination of specific factors of method, time, duration of delivery, and funding. Included are chapters on (1) the philosophical aspects of prisoner education, (2) its history, (3) prisoner education today, (4) prisoner education in the future with recommendations for improvement, and (5) conclusions and recommendations for a "blue print for action for government and civic leaders." The latter chapter includes discussions of barriers to prison education programs, and the need for a redefinition of objectives, raising of training standards, achieving affective as well as cognitive goals, utilizing technological aids, focusing on reintegration of offenders into communities, performing adequate diagnosis of needs, and improving management. Suggestions are made for (1) governmental and foundation guidance and support; (2) the establishment of a Corrections Foundation, a National Academy for Corrections, and traveling fellowships; (3) guidelines for central reception, classification and evaluation; and (4) workshops on educational technology. An appendix contains a synopsis of information from questionnaires to 153 institutions. A bibliography of documents and publications follows.

(A relevant book containing a fairly recent description of education programs together with general and specific recommendations for program improvement.)

Roberts, Albert R. Sourcebook on Prison Education. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1971.

This volume begins with a historical overview of the development of correctional education. Separate chapters describe (1) programs at Patuxent Institution in Jessup, Maryland; Victor Cullen Training School, Cullen, Maryland; Florida's institutions; and the Federal institution at Lompoc, California; (2) the function of operant reinforcement in the process of resocializing the offender; (3) highlights of vocational programs at New York State Prison, Wallkill and West Coxsackie, New York; (4) the lack of uniformity in social education programs, with particular attention to the Guides for Better Living Program and to a pre-release social education program in the Texas prison system, both of which have produced lowered recidivism rates; (5) recreational programs at three Federal institutions--Ashland, Kentucky; Atlanta, Georgia; and Morgantown, West Virginia; (6) objectives and functions of prison libraries; (7) research in correctional education. The book concludes with an appendix of specific recommendations for program improvement.

(The 18 specific recommendations for academic program improvement are of special interest.)

Roberts, Albert R., ed. Readings in Prison Education. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1973.

This volume of readings offers a varied sampling of contributions (31 articles) to the field of education of offenders, including its history, philosophy and program objectives; the education and training of correctional educators; descriptions of existing programs; recommendations for improvement of academic, vocational, and social education programs. Also included is a chapter on prison libraries and a chapter on research.

(Of interest to persons at all levels of involvement in the education of prisoners. Contains a large amount of diversified information from experts in the field.)

Roberts, Albert R., and Coffey, Osa D. A State of the Art Survey for a Correctional Education Network. Part I. College Park, Maryland: American Correctional Association, 1976.

This monograph summarizes the results of a questionnaire and on-site survey, funded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, of instructional technology in corrections, methods of selection, strengths and weaknesses, and needs for improvement. It is concluded that (1) product research is needed to determine effectiveness of materials; (2) channels for dissemination of information are needed; (3) instructional technology is grossly underused in corrections; (4) there is a need for new and different materials; and (5) many correctional systems find existing education funds insufficient. The authors suggest establishment of correctional education clearinghouses to pool resources and share expenses, to provide expertise for conducting training workshops, and to coordinate programming for a correctional education network.

(A provocative discussion of the possibilities of instructional technology.)

Roberts, Albert R., and Coffey, Osa D. A State of the Art Survey for a Correctional Education Network. Part II. College Park, Maryland: American Correctional Association, 1976.

The authors discuss the applications of instructional technology in separate chapters on television, communication satellites, and computer assisted instruction. The section on television describes advantages of its use and how it can be used most effectively, based on cited research--the major emphasis being that television must be integrated with other classroom activities, including adequate follow-up by the teacher with opportunity for discussion. Various kinds of television are described, including some cost factors and model systems now in operation. The authors state that communications satellites hold the potential for global classrooms. Model programs, program costs and an organizational framework for delivery are described. A section on computer assisted instruction includes some of the important functions of such a system, the potential advantages and disadvantages, current use of computers in institutions in six states, costs of programs, and a number of other factors.

(Some fairly detailed information on instructional technology.)

Ryan, T. A., ed. Correctional Education: A Projection for the Future. Columbia, South Carolina: University of South Carolina, 1977.

This document contains three articles, all emphasizing the importance of projecting an ideal as a means of assessing needs and formulating plans for program implementation. The first article focuses on the conceptual framework within which ideal projections can be made and gives an historical overview of correctional education in the 1970's. Projected socioeconomic changes in the year 2000 are outlined as well as the changing shape of corrections in particular. The second article discusses an ideal educational system for juveniles, including an orientation/diagnostic phase, and a second phase which concentrates on release readiness and reintegration into society. The third article discusses dramatic societal changes to be expected in the year 2000 and components of an ideal system for the education of adult offenders, including facilities/climate, staff, finances, hardware/software.

(Presents optimistic ideals for the future of correctional education.)

Ryan, T. A., ed. Perspectives for Career Education in Corrections. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 147 577.

One of the products resulting from the Adult Career Education in Corrections Program of the University of Hawaii (a national effort initiated in 1972 and implemented within a regional framework with local participation), this volume is intended to serve as a supplemental resource for use with a generalized model . . . for planning, implementing and evaluating programs of adult career education in corrections. The volume is comprised of articles divided into seven major topical areas which correspond to the seven major functions of the model: establish conceptual framework (14 articles), process system information (three articles), assess needs for career education (two articles), define/develop goals/subgoals/objectives (three articles), formulate adult career education plan (eight articles), implement adult career education plan (16 articles), and evaluate adult career education system (one article). The articles were written by a wide range of professionals in the fields of corrections, education, economics, sociology, and psychology. (ERIC abstract)

(Issues addressed are wide-ranging.)

Ryan, T. A.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C.; Oresic, Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Wells, H. Gary. Model of Adult Career Education in Corrections. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975.

This model is a systems approach for planning, implementing, and evaluating adult career education in corrections, briefly defined, in part as " . . . the process of developing or changing behaviors of correctional clients through purposefully created experiences and planned environments to prepare them for personally satisfying and socially productive roles." It utilizes all disciplines, both inside and outside the correctional system. The model is the result of a national effort initiated in 1972. Separate chapters on the seven functions of the model deal with: (1) establishing a conceptual framework; (2) setting up an information processing system; (3) assessing needs; (4) establishing management subgoals and objectives to implement major goals; (5) formulating a management plan to optimize delivery; (6) implementation; (7) evaluating the delivery system and implementing programs. A comprehensive bibliography is included as well as a glossary, list of resource persons, career education periodicals, and related information.

(This publication stresses the need for a total, integrated approach to rehabilitation, including development of meaningful academic, career, and leisure time capabilities.)

Texas. Department of Corrections. The Basics of Individualized Instruction in Correctional Education. Huntsville, Texas: Windham School District, 1975.

This 78 page booklet addresses key principles in the education of adult offenders, including cooperative development of curriculum following needs assessment by teachers, administrators and students; the need for individualization of instruction with an emphasis on basic communication and computational skills; instructional and behavioral objectives which are clearly defined and non-graded; variety in materials, equipment, techniques and methods, and an appreciation of the unique prison environment in which learning must take place. The development of modular packets in a performance-based program is described in detail, as well as leadership in group discussion utilizing a hierarchy of cognitive processes.

(A concise, well written presentation of individualized instruction, of special value to teachers and administrators.

U. S. Office of Education. Education Programs that Work. Fifth Edition. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1978.

The introduction of this catalog gives information on exemplary education programs, including funding and names and addresses of state facilitators. Individual program descriptions are divided into ten categories: alternative schools, bilingual and migrant education, career or vocational education, early childhood/parent readiness/parent involvement, environmental education, organizational arrangements/training/administration, reading/language arts/math, special education/learning disabilities, special interests/arts/communication skills, technology, special interests/health, human behavior, physical education, multiple talent development. Information for each project is given on target audience, program description, assurances/claims (tested student gains), implementation requirements, financial requirements, services available and contact persons. Appendices give information on Title I and IV projects and coordinators, Right-to-Read programs and contact persons, project information packages and three indices (descriptor, alphabetical, and exemplary projects.)

(Parts of this publication should be of interest to educators of adult offenders, even though the majority of the programs described are directed towards children.)

University of Southern California, College of Continuing Education in Corrections. "The Assessment of Inmate Learning Needs: Research Methodology and Survey Results." Los Angeles: University of Southern California, College of Continuing Education in Corrections, 1978. (Mimeographed)

This study is the result of a pilot program sponsored by USC and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration to demonstrate assessment and utilization of existing educational technology and program materials. A second goal was to design three programs linking existing materials with available delivery systems and to implement these programs in three sites. Methodology included questionnaire surveys of education staff and inmates at Federal, State, and local facillities (primarily in California); in-depth work at three core institutions; a national survey of courseware publishers; the preparation of a bibliography of curriculum materials, tests, and resources. Six seminars were conducted nationally with 140 correctional educators. Survey data on inmates' interest and needs showed the most frequently cited skill area was personal financial management; academic interests most cited were law and "counseling" (practical rather than academic); and vocational interest most cited was photography. A number of recommendations relating to program improvement are cited.

(Specific portions of this study may be obtained, with a charge for copying), from Mary Harrison, Associate Director, College of Continuing Education Programs in Corrections, University of Southern California, Research Annex, Los Angeles, California 90007.)

SECTION II. Administration; Funding

The emphasis in this section lies primarily in alternatives to traditional administration of education programs:

American Bar Association, 1973.
Education Handbook--A Resource and Reference Guide for Education and Leisure Activity Managers and Personnel in the Federal Prison System, June 1978.
Emmert, Ellen B., 1976.
Feldman, Sylvia D., 1975.
Mahoney, James R., 1976.
Miller, Laura Means Pope, 1978.
Murray, Lane, 1976.
Murray, Lane, 1975.

See also:

Adams, Stuart N., 1973, in Section I.
California. Department of Corrections, 1977, in Section X.
Comptroller General of the United States, February 6, 1979, in Section I.
McCollum, Sylvia G., 1976, in Section I.
McCollum, Sylvia G., 1973, in Section I.
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, 1979. (By Raymond Bell and others of Lehigh University), in Section I.
NewGate Model, 1973, in Section VII.
Reagen, Michael V., and Stoughton, Donald M., eds., 1976, in Section I.
Roberts, Albert R., ed., 1973, in Section I.
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975, in Section I.
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975, in Section V.
Ryan, T. A.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C.; Oresic, Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Wells, H. Gary, 1975, in Section I.
Ryan, T. A.; Clark, Dale W.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney J. C. Verl; Oresic, Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Sessions, Arnold R.; Streed, James L.; Wells, H. Gary, 1975, in Section V.
Seashore, Marjorie J. and Haberfeld, Steven, with Irwin, John, and Baker, Keith., 1976, in Section VII.
Systems Development Corporation, 1977, in Section X.
Systems Development Corporation, 1978, in Section X.
University of Southern California, 1978, in Section I.

SECTION II. Administration; Funding

American Bar Association. "Potential of Correctional School District Organizations." Coordination Bulletin No. 22. Washington, D.C.: Clearinghouse for Offender Literacy Programs, December 1973. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 114 821.

An alternative to the meager budgets which complicate the correctional educator's task is proposed in this bulletin. A correctional school district organization can be developed to support viable education programs for individuals within the penal system. The six states of Texas, Connecticut, Illinois, New Jersey, Arkansas, and Ohio already have operating correctional school districts. Key aspects and elements of the special district concept are discussed. Positive aspects of the organizational concept are considered to be that priorities can be readily established and assigned to educational programs and services in correctional institutions, that legally constituted educational units have broader access to State and Federal sources of funds, that funding which will permit full programming encourages long-range planning and staffing continuity, and that the status of prison educational programs can be advanced in relation to other prison programs. A profile of the Connecticut Correctional School District indicates a trend toward more centralized operation and a fifty percent enrollment of inmates in educational and training programs. Sources of further information about correctional school districts are suggested. (ERIC abstract)

Education Handbook--A Resource and Reference Guide for Education and Leisure Activity Managers and Personnel in the Federal Prison System. Washington, D.C.: Federal Prison System, Education Services Section, June, 1978.

This manual describes education program goals and objectives, and outlines responsibilities, strategies, and procedures in the areas of admission and orientation, inmate program reporting system, supervision and evaluation, budget planning and management, auxiliary and custody and security responsibilities, and staff training. Program scope and content are described, including learning centers, GED, postsecondary, occupational, and study release. There are separate sections on library services (including a legal library), leisure activities, social education, pre-release, and special programs. Appendices include a listing of course offerings, a list of education personnel in the Federal prison system, resource materials, and education-related policy statements.

(This manual is included in the bibliography as an illustration of the type of handbook which should be available to correctional education managers. It is available through inter-library loan, NCJRS No. 50988.)

Emmert, Ellen B. Offender Assistance Programs Operated by Postsecondary Institutions of Education. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, 1976. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 125 726.

The following information was obtained from 347 postsecondary institutions known or believed to be operating prison education programs: 99 had no such program in operation, 237 described their programs, and 11 did not respond; 63 consisted of one or more academic or vocational courses offered for credit, but leading to no particular degree; nine consisted of non-credit courses; 15 consisted of vocational or occupational courses only; 13 consisted of TV, video-tape, or electrowriter courses only; seven consisted of GED, adult basic education, or high school equivalency courses only; seven consisted of correspondence, extension, or independent study only; 13 consisted of study release courses only; and 80 were multi-component programs incorporating at least two of the above elements. Two programs trained inmates as teachers or tutors for their fellow students and four used student interns or volunteers to provide educational opportunities. A directory of the programs identified is included. (Adapted from ERIC abstract)

(Fairly recent data on the involvement of postsecondary schools in all areas of prison education programs.)

Feldman, Sylvia D. Trends in Offender Vocational and Education Programs: A Literature Search with Program Development Guidelines. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, January 20, 1975. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 125 709.

Since the mid-1960's there has been a trend toward placing offenders in the community and away from isolating them in penal institutions. This paper is concerned with this trend as it relates to training and education programs. The author reviews the literature pertaining to pretrial intervention and diversion programs and to post-conviction programs. She also presents guidelines to assist interested individuals and groups in planning, designing, and establishing community education programs for offenders, in gaining community support and in program finance and evaluation. Appendices include an extensive bibliography, a list of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration grants for pretrial release and educational release for 1972-74, and a list of the two- and four-year colleges presently conducting higher education programs in State and Federal penal institutions. (Adapted from ERIC abstract)

(An interesting presentation of offender education program options.)

Mahoney, James R. Offender Assistance through Community Colleges Programs. Final Report. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, August 1976. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 130 702.

This document reports on the results of an 18 month demonstration program conducted by the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges (AACJC) to show that the community college is uniquely suited as a resource for offenders. Pilot programs were established at three community colleges—Central Piedmont Community College in North Carolina, Florida Junior College at Jacksonville, and Community College of Denver. Each college was free to establish its own model program, consistent with the overall AACJC project objectives. Goals of the program included provision of educational and human service assistance to offenders, development of collaborative relationships between the college and criminal justice and public service agencies, and development of nationally appropriate program models. The target population was first-time convicted felons who were on probation; non-target offenders were accommodated at the request of justice officials. Of 712 offenders served by the program, 445 were target offenders. Per student costs for the total group and for the target group only were $292 and $467, respectively. Approximately 25% of the target group enrolled in Adult Basic Education, 20% in General Educational Development courses, 27% in academic curricula, 20% in occupational courses, and 8% in other areas. Of the target population, 27 (6.1%) were charged with new offenses, a far lower rate than the national average. Evaluation reports by each of the three participant colleges and other related project material is appended. (ERIC abstract)

(An interesting discussion of community college involvement in the education of offenders.)

Miller, Laura Means Pope. "Toward Equality of Educational Opportunity through School Districts in State Bureaus: An Innovation in Correctional Education." Harvard Journal on Legislation, vol. 15, no. 2 (1978), pp. 223-295.

This article begins by reviewing some of the issues involved in meeting the educational needs of incarcerated individuals, including the legal ramifications of the right-to-treatment doctrine. She discusses three alternative models to correctional school districts and identifies their fundamental weakness as a separation "politically, structurally and conceptually" between the education of institutionalized and non-institutionalized persons. A model for a correctional school district is presented, including a policy-making body, a chief educational administrator, and professional staff analogous to local districts.

Immediate benefits are to make the program eligible for State and Federal money. Major policy issues are discussed, including the need for a funding source similar to a local tax base, and approaches of various states utilizing the concept presently as to the board of education, superintendent of schools, personnel, and political strategy. The benefits of the Connecticut plan are described in detail. The author concludes that: "Although conceived in many states merely as a means of channeling Federal funds into State bureaus, the school district model carries the broader potential for establishing and fulfilling a mandate for universal entitlement to equal education." An appendix lists, by states, survey responses to questions regarding the current status of attempts to establish correctional school districts.

(A highly relevant, well-written statement on the subject. Should be of extreme interest to educators in corrections, academia in general, legislators, and others in policy-making positions.)

Murray, Lane. "The Role of Federal Government in Adult Education." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 28, no. 1 (1976), pp. 2-3.

The author, Superintendent of the Windham School District, Texas Department of Corrections, suggests that the Federal government take a leadership position in assuring minimal correctional education in every State. She says that education should not be viewed as a guarantee for rehabilitation but rather as a practical way to remove identifiable deficiencies in a troublesome segment of society. She also suggests that APL (adult performance level) program efforts based at the University of Texas at Austin be used as a model for Competency-Based Adult Education Laboratories on a national level under Federal legislation and leadership.

(A call for support in implementing minimal competency-based education for prison inmates.)

________. "The School District Concept." Adult Leadership, June 1975, pp. 358-360.

The Superintendent of the first correctional school district in the United States reviews the first half-decade of the district's operation. She cites increased financing, increased space allocation, a staff increase from eight noncertified teachers to 89 certified academic teachers, 20 special education teachers, and 63 vocational education instructors. Inmate participation almost doubled; academic vocational and special programs have become more diversified. Recidivism rates for "newly received" inmates was reported as far lower than national averages.

(Here is a strong advocate of the correctional school district concept.)

SECTION III. Staff; Volunteers

No attempt was made to include material on volunteerism in general; the citations here pertain to staff and volunteers in corrections only:

Annual Report of the California Adult Competency Education Project, 1978-79.
Leiberg, Leon G., 1973.
Mangano, Joseph A., and Bosco, Joseph A., 1976.
Marsh, John J., 1977.
NALA The National Affliliation for Literacy Advance, 1978-79.
Norde, Gerald S., 1979.
Scheier, Ivan; Berry, Judith; and others, 1972.
Scott, Brent D., 1974.
Williams, David C., 1977.

See also:

Berman, Rita M., 1978, in Section V.
Black, L. R., 1975, in Section VII.
Carsetti, Janet K., 1975, in Section IV.
Education Handbook--A Resource and Reference Guide for Education and Leisure Activity Managers and Personnel in the Federal Prison System, 1978, in Section II.
Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc., 1978, in Section IV.
McFadden, Johnnie, and McFadden, Grace, 1976, in Section VII.
Marsh, John, and Adams, Stuart N., 1976, in Section I.
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, 1979. (By Raymond Bell and others of Lehigh University), in Section I.
Read, Inc., 1978, in Section IV.
Reagen, Michael V., and Stoughten, Donald M., 1976, in Section I.
Roberts, Albert R., 1973, in Section I.
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975, in Section V.
Ryan, T. A.; Clark, Dale W.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C. Verl; Oresic, Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Sessions, Arnold R.; Streed, James L.; Wells, H. Gary, 1975, in Section V.
University of Southern California, 1978, in Section I.

Annual Report of the California Adult Competency Education Project, 1978-79. San Francisco: San Francisco State University, 1979.

This report describes a project conducted by San Francisco State University staff which explored the potential for implementation of adult basic education and APL (adult performance level) competencies in curriculum development. Initiated in 1974-75, eight selected teams were trained in the development of instructional modules in basic skills utilizing consumer education, health, occupational knowledge and government and law content areas. Field testing took place following staff development. The continuing consultant and training activities of the project are described in the report. A process model for program and staff development is outlined. Appendices include lists of participants and agenda for training sessions.

(Illustrative of continuing efforts to develop competency based curriculum for adults. A number of correctional educators attended the training sessions described in this report.)

Leiberg, Leon G. "Project Challenge." In Readings in Prison Education, pp. 155-72. Edited by Albert R. Roberts. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1973.

Project Challenge, a 14-month demonstration program, began in 1966 at Lorton Youth Center, Virginia, utilizing staff and VISTA volunteers in counseling and tutoring. The program included (1) vocational and remedial academic education, (2) intensive counseling, (3) supportive follow-up counseling including work with families and employers and job placement after release. The merits of non-authoritarian contact on an interpersonal level are cited, as well as the sense of community interest and involvement. Volunteers worked as adjuncts to parole supervisors, usually in unstructured "free time" vs. systematic contact with parolees. A profile is given of successful and non-successful trainees. Although no broad generalizations are inferred, the overall success rate, using Daniel Glaser's criteria, was 74%.

(The effectiveness of a good volunteer program is evident here.)

Mangano, Joseph, and Bosco, Joseph. "Redesigning Academic Curriculum." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 28, no. 1, (1976), pp. 14-16.

The authors describe the method used to redesign curriculum for the New York State correctional education system beginning in 1975 with the Department of Correctional Services, Division of Continuing Education (Department of Education) and State University of New York at Albany cooperating on the redesign. Emphasis included a centralized curriculum for all 14 institutions with uniform diagnostic-instructional methodology so that instruction could be individualized for each inmate. Training sessions of two-three weeks were held to present the new curriculum and methodology to selected teachers and supervisors of education. Time was allocated for each institutional team to meet separately to consider factors unique to their facility. On-site visits by administrators and curriculum specialists were later conducted to evaluate implemention.

(This model for the redesign of curriculum and program delivery should be of special interest for administrators working on uniformity of programming.)

Marsh, John J. "Correctional Educators--the Forgotten Professionals?" Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 29, no. 1, (1977) pp. 6-9.

The major focus of this article is on the role of the Correctional Education Association in the development of a philosophy of correctional education, including a definition of the profession, goals and standards, and directions for growth. The author raises a number of questions regarding the relationship of the Association to other professional organizations in corrections and education, the Association's position on counseling and testing, the emerging emphasis on community-based programs, the kinds of personnel standards required, the attitude of the Association regarding organizational structure, and the relationship of the Association to the public schools. He concludes by calling for an integration of academic and corrections through the development of a philosophy of correctional education.

(Dr. Marsh's call for a strong, unified approach of correctional educators to their profession should be of interest.)

NALA The National Affiliation for Literacy Advance, 1978-79. (Brochure)

This pamphlet gives a brief description of the network of over 22,000 volunteers involved in literacy tutoring. Certified trainers offer workshops of 10-18 hours training tutors for native speakers of English, for English to speakers of other languages, and writer's skills. This organization is an affiliate of Laubach Literacy International.

(Information regarding these services may be obtained from National Affiliation for Literacy Advance, Box 131, Syracuse, New York 13210.)

Norde, Gerald S. "Correctional Education Performance Competency Standards." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 30, no. 1, (1979) pp. 13-15.

This article addresses the need for basic standards for the training and competency of correctional educators. The Correctional Education Performance Competency Standards, which the author originated, are outlined and explained. The standards, together with standards indicators, are comprised of the following components: (1) security, (2) knowledge of prison culture, (3) control and order in a learning environment (through respect and motivation of learners), (4) self-awareness, (5) education and experience (credentials and practice/student teaching in a correctional setting), and (6) community relationships.

(An outline of standards indicators for correctional educators which will be of interest to administrators and teachers.)

Scheier, Ivan; Berry, Judith; and others. Guidelines and Standards for the Use of Volunteers in Correctional Programs. Boulder, Colorado: National Information Center on Volunteers in Courts, 1972.

The first section of this volume reports on a national survey of volunteer programs in probation, parole and corrections (59% return of 500 sampled agencies and institutions). The increased use of volunteers in the criminal justice system is noted, as well as some of the problems of turnover, lack of staff commitment and knowledge, lack of paid leadership, and inadequate record keeping and management. The second section deals with general principles of program management, including planning; orienting staff to volunteers; recruiting, screening and training volunteers; public relations; record keeping and evaluation; and funding and finance. The third section provides relatively in-depth discussions of three separate programs, and the fourth section consists of printed resources and training aids.

(Of the 41 responses from approximately 75 adult correctional facilities sampled, 90% reported a volunteer program. Of 14 volunteer job categories listed in the survey, teaching/tutoring was the second most frequently cited function of volunteers among the total responding agencies and institutions. This document is available through inter-library loan, National Criminal Justice Reference Service.)

Scott, Brent D. "Marriage of Academia and Practice in Corrections." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 26, no. 4, (1974), pp. 10-12.

The author states that the integration of academic and practical aspects of correctional education can be accomplished by: (1) varying levels of academic training needed for different correctional jobs (providing training and job descriptions for aides and paraprofessionals of existing professions); (2) internships and practicum to give college students practical experience and knowledge of their own ability to function in a difficult field; (3) encouragement of field-oriented research by academicians (the author feels this could eliminate misunderstandings between academia and corrections); and (4) in-service programs for people already working in corrections.

(Some food for thought for correctional and "outside" educators.)

Williams, David C. "Rethinking Correctional Staff Development." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 29, no. 1, (1977), pp. 14-16.

This article addresses the issue of conflicts between custodial and treatment personnel in prisons. A number of suggestions for improving the conditions are given, including off-site activity to open channels of communication, alternatives to standardization and centralization allowing greater flexibility and idea exchange, involvement on several levels including the need of the rank and file to see the "front office" people "out in the field," and joint treatment and custodial training sessions.

(Some good ideas on staff development.)

SECTION IV. Literacy

A section on literacy, separate from adult basic education, is perhaps somewhat an arbitrary division. The intent is to emphasize the importance of fostering functional literacy of inmates.

Carsetti, Janet K., 1975.
Helfrich, John, 1973.
Laubach Literacy International, 1979.
Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc., October 1978.
Read, Inc., 1978.
Read Resources, Winter 1978-79.

See also:

Adult APL Survey. User's Guide, 1976, in Section V.
American Bar Associaton, 1974, in Section V.
American Institutes for Research in the Behavorial Sciences, 1975, in Section V.
California. Department of Corrections, 1977, in Section X.
McKee, John M., and others, 1967, in Section V.
NALA National Affiliation for Literacy Advance, 1978-79, in Section III.
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, 1979. (By Raymond Bell and others of Lehigh University), in Section I.
Reagen, Michael V., and Stoughton, Donald M., 1976, in Section I.
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975, in Section V.
Ryan, T. A.; Clark, Dale W.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C. Verl; Oresic, Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Sessions, Arnold R.; Streed, James L.; Wells, H. Gary, 1975, in Section V.
University of Texas at Austin, 1977, in Section V.

SECTION IV. Literacy

Carsetti, Janet K. Literacy: Problems and Solutions. A Resource Handbook for Correctional Educators. Washington, D. C.: American Bar Association, Clearinghouse for Offender Literacy Programs, 1975.

This handbook presents a concise definition of and statistics on the incidence of illiteracy in correctional institutions and barriers to overcoming same, together with suggested solutions. An overview of methods and techniques for teaching reading includes language experience, individualized reading, programmed learning, basal reader, and phonics, and lists strengths and weaknesses of each method. Motivational techniques include the use of music, television guides, newspapers, telephone books, and catalogs, and emphasize uniformity in the total learning environment. A bibliography for students lists books by grade level under the categories of multi-ethnic Americans, black Americans, sports, Indian studies, and high interest/low vocabulary. Information on the selection of diagnostic tests is given. An extensive list (113 pages) of commercially prepared reading materials provides information about availability, purpose, entry level, readability, target group, format, and cost. A profile of volunteers, their selection, training and evaluation, and hints on planning the volunteer literacy program are included, as well as a directory of volunteer organizations which can be useful in teaching reading.

(This excellent handbook contains highly relevant material for supervisors of education and teachers. Unfortunately, it is out of print and available only through interlibrary loan, National Criminal Justice Reference Service.)

Carsetti, Janet J. Motivational Activities for Reluctant Readers. Silver Spring, Maryland: READ, Inc., 1979.

This publication describes in detail the development of functional learning packets for motivating readers, including format, contents, evaluation, and other components. One chapter provides samples of packets developed from forms, labels, magazines, advertisements, reference materials and other sources. Other sections describe the use of music and comic strips as motivational techniques. A teacher resource bibliography is also included.

(An excellent, practical publication for teachers. May be obtained, together with a list of other publications available, from Project Read, READ, Inc., P. O. Box 994, Columbia, Maryland 21044.)

Helfrich, John. "One Effort to Upgrade Literacy in the Correctional Population." The Prison Journal, vol. 53, no. 2, (1973), pp. 46-54.

Objectives of the Clearinghouse for Offender Literacy Programs are discussed, including: (1) the gathering of information on on-going reading programs, resources, volunteer tutors and users; (2) the dissemination of such information and the (3) provision of technical services to correctional educators through a series of workshops. The article cites publications of the Clearinghouse which deal specifically with reading techniques, materials, tests, projects and program profiles.

(Some of the Clearinghouse publications may be obtained from ERIC—others through interlibrary loan from the National Criminal Justice Reference Service or the American Bar Association, Governmental Relations Office, 1800 M Street NW, Washington, D. C. 20036.)

Laubach Literacy International. New Readers Press 1979-80 Catalog. Syracuse, New York: 1979.

This catalog describes and lists materials in the New Streamlined English Series, the Lauback Way to English Series, and series on practical information and survival reading, social studies, career education, consumer education, family life and health, and driver education. A final section describes the parent organization, Laubach Literacy International, and the National Affiliation for Literacy Advance (an associated volunteer tutoring program.)

(Offices of Laubach Literacy, New Readers Press, and NALA are located in Syracuse, New York 13210, Box 131.)

Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc. "Literacy Volunteers of America Program in Criminal Justice." Syracuse, New York: Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc., October, 1978. (Mimeographed.)

This statement describes briefly the Literacy Volunteers of America programs in New York, Connecticut, and Maine correctional institutions. The programs, sponsored by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, utilized inmate as well as community ACTION volunteer tutors, with Literacy Volunteers of America training materials and technical assistance. 482 students in the New York program showed an average gain of 10.9 months after an average of 37 hours of instruction. An independent evaluation of the Connecticut and Maine programs revealed equally positive results. Benefits to inmate-tutors are also cited.

(Information regarding these programs may be obtained from Joseph Gray, Executive Director, Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc., Room 623, Midtown Plaza, 700 East Water Street, Syracuse, New York 13210.)

Read, Inc. To Make a Difference--A Report of the Motivational Reading Program of Project Read. Silver Spring, Maryland: Read, Inc., 1978.

This report covers a period from April 1977 to June 1978 and describes the Project's program in 74 training institutions, alternative community based, and private training schools--consisting of three phases: (1) teacher training, (2) testing of students, and (3) distribution of paperbacks in Dan Fader's "Hooked on Books" approach. Teacher training programs included suggestions in motivational techniques, the language experience approach and skill development; preparation of fundamental reading packets; small group games; contracting for learning. Pre- and post-tests in mental ability, self-concept, reading comprehension and phonics ability were administered to students before and after teacher training. On the basis of students' previous poor achievement " . . . a gain in reading of one year in four months is not only significant, but overwhelming." Project Read's new direction is away from locked facilities to community-based facilities.

(The effectiveness of teacher training programs is well illustrated in this report. It and a more recent publication, Continuing to Make a Difference, A Report of the Activities of Project Read, 1978-79, may be obtained from READ, Inc., P. O. Box 994, Columbia, Maryland 21044.)

Read Resources. (A Newsletter of Project Read) Winter, 1978-79. Silver Spring, Maryland: Read, Inc.

Included in this newsletter is information on Project Read training sessions, new classroom resources in the form of books and kits on contemporary subjects and necessary life skills, arts education publications, Indian publications, and teacher idea exchange.

(See preceding annotation regarding availability of this and other Project Read publications.)

SECTION V. Adult Basic Education

This section has drawn heavily on the development of competency-based adult education and on publications by T. A. Ryan and others at the University of Hawaii.

Adult APL Survey. User's Guide, 1976.
American Bar Association, Clearinghouse for Offender Literacy Programs, 1974.
Berman, Rita M., 1978.
Easley, Edgar M., 1975.
Frank, Boris, 1975.
Hilfiker, Eugene E., 1975.
Johnson, Shelvy E., Jr., 1973.
Lucas, Geoffrey S., 1979.
McKee, John M., 1975.
McKee, John M. and others, 1967.
PACE Learning Systems, Inc., n.d.
Planning Consumer Education Programs for Residents of Prisons and Pre-Release Centers, 1978.
PLATO Correctional Project Staff, 1978.
Pounds, Jerry E., 1974.
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975. (a)
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975. (b)
Ryan, T. A.; Clark, Dale W.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C. Verl; Oresic, Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Sessions, Arnold R.; Streed, James L.; Wells, H. Gary, 1975.
Sierra Conservation Center, 1974.
Udvari, Stephen S., 1975.
University of Texas at Austin, 1977.
Wilson, Robert M., and Barnes, Marcia M., 1974.

See also:

Annual Report of the California Adult Competency Education Project, 1978-79, 1979, in Section III.
Ayers, J. Douglas, 1975, in Section I.
Bennett, Lawrence A., in Section X.
California. Department of Corrections, 1977, in Section X.
California. Department of Education, 1979, in Section VI.
Kilty, Ted K., 1977, in Section I.
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, 1979. (By Raymond Bell and others of Lehigh University), in Section I.
Read, Inc., 1978, in Section IV.
Reagen, Michael V., and Stoughton, Donald M., eds., 1976, in Section I.
Roberts, Albert R., 1971, in Section I.
Roberts, Albert R., ed., 1973, in Section I.

SECTION V. Adult Basic Education

Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975, in Section I.
Ryan, T. A.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C.; Oresic, Joseph, Orrell, James B.; Wells, H. Gary, 1975, in Section I.
University of Southern California, 1978, in Section I.

SECTION V. Adult Basic Education

Adult APL Survey. User's Guide. Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1976.

Based on research at the University of Texas at Austin, APL (adult performance level) program goals, objectives and components are described. The five content areas are community resources, occupational knowledge, consumer economics, health, and government and law--focusing on reading, writing, computation, problem solving, and identification of facts and terms. The development of the APL concept is delineated as well as an agreement with ACT to refine, adapt, publish and distribute the materials. The APL survey is a 40-item measure of functional competency to be used as a basis for curriculum planning. Survey booklets, answer sheets and a manual are used in conjunction with the survey. Administration, scoring and interpretation of results are described, as well as details of the standardization sample and survey characteristics. Appendices contain various statistical data as well as a statement of goals, objectives and definitions of APL skills.

(Concise data about the use of APL programs.)

American Bar Association, Clearinghouse for Offender Literacy Programs. Reading Program Resource Manual for Adult Basic Education. Washington, D. C.: American Bar Association, 1974.

This document contains profiles of reading programs developed by public and commercial groups. Each profile indicates the characteristics and cost of such programs, the kind of teacher assistance needed, testing involved, and what kinds of students (adults, children, foreign language), can be effectively reached. Data is also provided on volunteer tutoring programs and the community-based "Right to Read" programs. Finally, sketches of reading programs actually conducted in correctional institutions is included.

(Available through interlibrary loan, National Criminal Justice Reference Service or American Bar Association, Governmental Relations Office, 1800 M Street NW, Washington, D.C. 20036.)

Berman, Rita M. "Bibliography of Relevant Courseware." Los Angeles: University of Southern California, College of Continuing Education Programs in Corrections, 1978. (Mimeographed)

This bibliography provides an extensive listing of software and resources suitable for use in an eclectic program approach to adult basic education. Remedial classroom teachers and correctional educators could also benefit from the teaching techniques sections. There are separate sections on the selection process; professional development; tests; communication--reading, English, spelling, functional reading, recreational reading; classroom library; math--computation, functional skills; ESL (English as a second language); competency based education--resources; functional and prevocational competencies--commercial sources; multicultural and intergroup relations; adult basic education classrooms.

(This comprehensive compilation is in the process of being up-dated and should be in print and available by the fall of 1980. In the interim, mimeographed copies may be obtained from Rita (Berman) Wirtz, Evaluator-Consultant, California Department of Corrections, 630 K Street, Sacramento 95814, or from Mary Harrison, College of Continuing Education, University of Southern California, Research Annex, Los Angeles 90007.)

Easley, Edgar M. "Hardware and Software in Corrections Education." In Education for Adults in Correctional Institutions: A Book of Readings, Volume II, pp. 494-512. Edited by T. A. Ryan. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975.

The author discusses and cites documentation of the possibilities of affective as well as cognitive benefits of programmed materials, especially as they relate to the basic theories of B. F. Skinner. Hardware and software and criteria for selection are discussed, as well as the use of learning and media centers. Specific sources for hardware and software are given.

(An interesting article for teachers and supervisors of education. The publication in which this article appears is available through ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 123 478.)

Frank, Boris. "Hardware and Software for Adult Basic Education." In Education for Adults in Correctional Institutions: A Book of Readings, Volume II, pp. 513-29. Edited by T. A. Ryan. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975.

This paper offers general suggestions about the role of instructional materials, cautioning that " . . . audio-visuals and materials cannot 'save' the poorly prepared teacher." It describes a University of Wisconsin Rural Family Development (RFD) project which has developed a Content Center curriculum centered around life coping skills in which reading, writing and computational skill materials are cataloged as they relate to specific living skill areas. Criteria are given for the evaluation and selection of adult basic education material and a filing and retrieval system for same. An eight-page annotated listing of adult basic education bibliographies is included.

(The annotated bibliography should be of interest. See preceding citation for availability of this publication.)

Hilfiker, Eugene E. "Implementation of an Adult Basic Education Program in a Correctional Setting." In Education for Adults in Correctional Institutions: A Book of Readings, pp. 236-51. Edited by T. A. Ryan. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975.

This article outlines the planning and implementation of adult basic education in corrections covering such areas as internal institutional restrictions; roles of the education staff; scheduling of programs; use of volunteers from the community; resident population and in-line staff; a positive climate for learning; curriculum; hardware and software; programmed instruction; and standards and evaluation, including a prerequisite test, pretest, supportive test and post-test.

(A good overview of some of the issues involved in program delivery. Available through ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 123 478.)

Johnson, Shelvy E., Jr. "Using Vocational Skill Clusters to Teach Adult Basic Education. In Readings in Prison Education, pp. 208-215. Edited by Albert R. Roberts. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1973.

Relationships between academic and vocational education are discussed. The cluster concept provides an opportunity to integrate skills and knowledge for several related occupations rather than one specific one. For example, a construction cluster would include carpentry, electrical work, painting, masonry, plumbing. This cluster, integrated with general adult basic education in math (reading calipers, micrometers, etc.); science, and communication skills, provides the basis for curriculum design. Reading and writing should revolve around terms used in the particular industry (parts manuals, trade magazines, and the like.)

(The integration of academic and vocational education as discussed here is an objective of many correctional educators.)

Lucas, Geoffrey S. "Hints on Individualization in ABE and GED." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 30, no. 1, (1979), p. 9.

The author describes the effectiveness of a learning center at the Huntington, Pennslyvania maximum security prison utilizing a diagnostic prescriptive approach. The individualized Reading Instructional System (IRIS) and Individually Prescribed Instruction System (IPI) are cited as providing effective lesson sequencing. Ongoing interviewing and post-testing are conducted. Instructors, with the help of inmate teacher aides, offer small group instruction and vary learning programs to meet individual needs. Improvement averaged one grade level for every three months (i.e., three nights per week) of regular participation. The move to individualized instruction has helped limit the dropout rate and improve teacher-student rapport.

(Further documentation of the effectiveness of individualized programming.)

McKee, John M. "Hardware and Software for Adult Basic Education in Corrections." In Education for Adults in Correctional Institutions, Volume II, pp. 556-69. Edited by T. A. Ryan. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975.

Individually prescribed instructional materials should lend themselves to self-pacing, active responding, frequent and immediate feedback and proper sequencing. The problem is one of selection from the multitude available. The author urges a move away from "simple minded copy frames" to extensive use of graphics, humor and variety so that reinforcement becomes intrinsic. While most programmed materials are of a linear frame format, the Mathetical system of behavorial analysis, characterized by branching, discrimination and generalization training, and student-constructed responses is superior. Computer-assisted instruction, though not widely used, is becoming less expensive. Visual aids, tape recorders, pacers, and tachistoscopes are essential in adult basic education. Contingency management and contracting are described together with a sample contract and progress plotter. The author stresses the need for integration of adult basic education with occupational and life goals--for which task analysis, curriculum development, and individualization is required. A list of resources is included.

(A good description of some of the procedures of the well-known Draper program. Publication is available through ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 123 478.)

McKee, John M. and others. Improving the Reading Level of Disadvantaged Adults. Elmore, Alabama: Rehabilitation Research Foundation, 1967. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 015 117.

To help disadvantaged inmates with low reading levels and those considered functionally illiterate, the Draper Correctional Center in Alabama experimented with various reading improvement programs. Most successful was the reading improvement program using the perceptoscope. All applicants who scored below the seventh grade reading level in the Metropolitan Achievement Test took the Perceptual Development Laboratories (PDL) Diagnostic Reading Test and were then enrolled either in the phonics program or in the intermediate reading program. The phonics program helped inmates who could not function at the intermediate level know about language sounds and develop the ability to convert sounds into words through the PDL Phonics Training System. The 40-lesson intermediate reading program used lessons read from the screen with speed controlled by the perceptoscope and lessons to improve comprehension. The whole program was effective in teaching reading skills, particularly comprehension, and in enhancing other language skills. The experimental group gained 2.5 grade levels, the control group had a .7 gain. This report lists other reading programs used at Draper Correctional Center. (ERIC abstract)

PACE Learning Systems, Inc. The Individually Prescribed Instructional System. University, Alabama: PACE Learning Systems, Inc., n.d.

This brochure describes an individually prescribed instructional system marketed by PACE, and information on the system's effectiveness.

(Research leading to the development of this system was conducted by the Rehabilitation Research Foundation under the direction of Dr. John McKee, formerly at Draper Correctional Institution. The address for PACE is P.O. Box AG, University, Alabama 35486.)

Planning Consumer Education Programs for Residents of Prisons and Pre-Release Centers. Carbondale, Illinois: Southern Illinois University, Department of Family Economics and Management, 1978. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 159 118.

This report describes the development of a consumer education program for prison inmates, and presents 12 curriculum guides on consumer topics relevant to prisoners. A planning task force determined that (1) instructional material must be suitable to a variety of reading levels, (2) audiovisual material and seminar/discussion format would be most effective, (3) motivation to attend would require special attention, and (4) scheduling must not conflict with other activities and requirements of prison life. The 12 guides included suggested resource materials, learning objectives, and teacher references. Topics are consumer credit, money management and budgets, food purchasing, clothing values, shelter, health insurance, automobile ownership and operation, automobile insurance, consumer complaints and recreation and leisure time. (Adapted from ERIC abstract)

(A good resource for curriculum guides.)

PLATO Correctional Project Staff. "Computer Based Education Has Been Introduced in Three Illinois Prisons." American Journal of Corrections, vol. 40, no. 1, (1978), p. 6-7, 34-37.

In three Illinois prisons, 23 computer terminals give inmates access to a curriculum of over 440 lessons. Students use keyboards to respond to instructions and questions on screen via telephone lines from PLATO computer at the University of Illinois. Instructional techniques include drill, tutorial, simulation, gaming and problem solving with immediate feedback providing individualization and interaction. The network provides a common curriculum base and record keeping. Necessary to the program is an instructional management/site implementation system and instructor training. Evaluation has been through observation, student attitude questionnaires and low drop-out rate (3%), with a major benefit of relatively high motivation of students, together with improved achievement in measured areas of GED.

(The low drop-out rate would seem to attest to the high motivational qualities of this computer based program.)

Pounds, Jerry E. "Programming Vocational Instruction." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 26, no. 2, (1974), pp. 13-14.

Programmed vocational materials should (1) serve the student with a low reading comprehension, (2) be easily translatable for those not fluent in English, (3) provide reinforcement in each frame, (4) allow for student control of speed of progress and back-up. A variety of programs have been produced at the Atlanta Federal Penitentiary with a large percentage of the effort coming from inmate instructor-aides. The author notes that many such programs can be produced with limited experience and with equipment often in school storage closets.

(An interesting description of integration of reading and computation training within a vocational context.)

Ryan, T. A., ed. Education for Adults in Correctional Institutions: A Book of Readings, Volume I. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975. (a)

This volume is intended to be used as an adjunct to the Model of Adult Basic Education in Corrections, prepared by T. A. Ryan and others, University of Hawaii, 1975. It deals with the planning of a delivery system of adult basic education in corrections and is composed of 34 articles authored by educators, correctional administrators and line personnel, ex-offenders, and others. The first major section is "Analyzing the Real Life Environment" (the institution, community, and inmates--including a section on human concern for the offender). It consists of twelve articles. The second section "Establishing a Philosophy," consists of nine articles and serves as a framework against which needs can be assessed. Chapter III, "Assessing Needs," is comprised of five articles and defines needs as " . . . discrepancies between what is and what is desired." Chapter IV is "Defining Goals, Sub-Goals, and Objectives" (to reflect philosophy and needs) and consists of three articles. Chapter V, "Formulating a Plan," consists of five articles dealing with the mission, parameters, analysis of constraints and resources, synthesizing solutions, modeling-simulating, and selection of solutions.

(A valuable book of readings. Volume I and II have been combined in the ERIC system into one document--ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 123 478.)

Ryan, T. A., ed. Education for Adults in Correctional Institutions: A Book of Readings, Volume II. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975. (b)

This is the second of two volumes of readings to be used in conjunction with the Model of Adult Basic Education in Corrections. It is made up of 37 articles. The first section, corresponding to Chapter VI of the Model, is "Developing, Implementing, and Evaluat- the Program." It includes articles on providing management support (by surveying and disseminating relevant research; recruiting, selecting and training staff; and coordinating institutional and community resources); (2) developing curriculum and implementing the program (assumptions, questions, goals, philosophy, practical needs to consider in curriculum development; the selection and use of hardware and software, including advantages and disvantages and listings of sources; discussions on individually prescribed instruction and linear, branched and computer systems); (3) program evaluation (techniques and timing of measurment). A final section, corresponding to Chapter VII of the Model, deals with overall system evaluation.

(This excellent book of readings has been combined with Volume I in the ERIC system, Document Reproduction Service ED 123 478.)

Ryan, T. A.; Clark, Dale W.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C. Verl; Oresic, Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Sessions, Arnold R.; Streed, James L.; Wells, H. Gary. Model of Adult Basic Education in Corrections. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975.

This Model utilizes the concepts, principles and techniques of a systems approach. It is a group product developed between 1969 and 1972 during national seminars in correctional adult basic education involving 300 participants, two initial experimental models and later delivery systems expansion to over 100 institutions, all leading to this revised version. The systems approach is described in detail; workshops for staffs of individual institutions led by teams training in systems concepts are recommended. The Model is described as follows: (I) Analysis of real life environment (institution, community, inmates--including social-cultural, economic, and personal-psychological characteristics). (II) Statement of philosophy developed through team effort. (III) Assessment of needs of offenders. (IV) Definition of goals, sub-goals, and objectives relating to the economic efficiency, civic responsibility, social relationships and self-realization of prisoners. (V) Formulation of a plan--delineation of parameters, analysis of constraints and resources, synthesis of solsutions, modeling-simulation. (VI) Development, implementation and evaluation--including the role of management, development of curriculum, methods and techniques for individual and group learning, individualized programming requirements, hardware and software, a description of learning centers, motivation, evaluation of curriculum and production of guides; implementation of plan (selection criteria, definition of test requirements and selection, pilot program with pretest, post-tests and modifications); conduct of full program with pretest, post-test and evaluation. (VII) Evaluation of the system through self-evaluation and outside team evaluation. A comprehensive bibliography is included as well as a glossary, lists of participants in the seminars, resource persons, and an appendix of bibliographies of adult basic education materials.

(Should be required reading for administrators involved in the delivery of programs for the education of adult offenders, though the authors caution against casual reading. It specifically addresses the issue of adult basic education; the same concepts and principles could be applied to other programs, however. Available through ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 117 397.)

Sierra Conservation Center. Learning to Read through Reading. Jamestown, California: Sierra Conservation Center, 1974. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 112 345.

One of the twelve exemplary programs summarized in the Introduction to Right to Read's "Effective Reading Programs: Summaries of 222 Selected Programs", this program attempts to raise the reading skills of inmates of the Sierra Conservation Center to the level needed for training in conservation work while in prison, or for outside jobs after parole or release. The seven week training session uses a reading-with-symbols method, giving the beginning reader visual cues to help identify the sound of a letter or a group of letters. Students first master consonant and vowel sounds from phonetic spelling lists, and as they proceed through the course to special reading books, the cuing with symbols is gradually reduced. The symbols enable the students to progress rapidly enough that they experience feelings of confidence and success in their reading. Students enter the program at the level at which they need work. The content of the program is designed to be of high interest to prisoners. (ERIC abstract)

Udvari, Stephen S. "Hardware and Software for Adult Basic Education." In Education for Adults in Correctional Institutions, Volume II, pp. 530-47. Edited by T. A. Ryan. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975.

The writer quotes from a 1969 publication he authored stating that "The curriculum design process is a system of relationship between the learner (his needs, his individual differences, his self-directed purposes), the teacher (his personality, his methods, his strategies), and the total supporting resources of institutions (goals, objectives, concepts, content, print media, machine devices, technology systems, environment, administrative and supportive services and so forth)." He goes on to discuss various types of hardware and software and disadvantages and advantages thereof. Adult curriculum development at the Rural Family Development (RFD) project at the University of Wisconsin is cited as well as the benefits of learning centers. He concludes that the content (software) of instructional technology is more important than the machine (hardware).

(A fairly specific discussion of instructional technology and curriculum development.)

University of Texas at Austin. Final Report: The Adult Performance Level Study. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, 1977.

This report describes the theory and methodology of a project undertaken in 1971 by the University of Texas to determine the competencies necessary for economic and educational success in today's society. The program included the development of performance indicators, field testing, national assessment of competencies, and determination of competency levels. "Competency profiles" are associated with three levels of adult success measured by income, job status, and education. The report describes the percent of the adult population falling into the categories of APL 1, functionally incompetent (approximately one-fifth of the population); APL 2, marginally competent; and APL 3, most competent. Implications for adult education are cited in terms of guidelines for program and instructional objectives, effectiveness assessment, staff development, national dissemination of APL data. Appendices include APL objectives, description of sample design and field procedures, the scoring process, and project reports for 1975-76.

(This report is a good description of the rationale behind current efforts toward adult competency based education.)

Wilson, Robert M., and Barnes, Marcia M. Survival Learning Materials. York, Pennslyvania: Stine Publishing Co., 1974.

A publication of the College Reading Association, this 51-page handbook provides "starter ideas" for teachers in developing packets of adult survival learning materials. Brief suggestions are given for surveying students' needs, locating materials, and teacher direction. Materials utilized are labels, directions, signs, applications, sales slips, etc., packaged in such a way as to develop reading skills in following directions, locating references, interpreting forms, and obtaining personal information.

(This is an excellent readily available source for packeting suggestions for teachers.)

SECTION VI. *Secondary Education/GED*

There does not appear to be a great deal of material specifically related to secondary education/GED in correctional institutions, although the *Model of Adult Basic Education in Corrections* in Section V includes secondary education as well as lower levels. The following materials are a few samples of what is available in the literature.

APL project Staff, University of Texas, 1976.
California. Department of Education, Adult Education Field Services Unit, February 1979.
Marsh, John J., 1973.
University of Texas at Austin, May 1978.
Watson, M. R., and Stump, E. S., 1974.

See also:

Adult APL Survey. User's Guide, 1976, in Section V.
Ayers, Douglas J., 1975, in Section I.
Education Handbook--A Resource and Reference Guide for Education and Leisure Activity Managers and Personnel in the Federal Prison System, June 1978, in Section II.
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, 1979. (By Raymond Bell and others of Lehigh University), in Section I.
PLATO Correctional Project Staff, 1978, in Section V.
Reagen, Michael V., and Stoughton, Douglas M., eds., 1976, in Section I.
Roberts, Albert R., 1971, in Section I.
Roberts, Albert R., ed., 1973, in Section I.
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975, in Section V. (a)
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975, in Section V. (b)
Ryan, T. A.; Clark, Dale W.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C. Verl; Oresic, Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Sessions, Arold R.; Streed, James L.; Wells, H. Gary, 1975, in Section V.
University of Southern California, 1978, in Section I.
University of Texas at Austin, 1977, in Section V.

SECTION VI. Secondary Education/GED

APL Project Staff, University of Texas. "Adult Performance Level Competency Based High School Diploma Program Offers Alternative." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 28, no. 3, (1976), pp. 2-7.

Following funding by the U. S. Office of Education of the Adult Performance Competency Board project, or APL, the University of Texas at Austin was charged with defining adult literacy in terms of actual competencies performed in everyday tasks and assessing these competencies for adults in the U. S. population. An outgrowth of the project was the development of an alternative for the four-year high school diploma and the GED which allows for a wide range of individual differences but which maintains quality standards credible to both employers and admissions officers in postsecondary institutions. Generalized and individualized competency levels are described, as well as the processing of the student through the various phases. Diplomas are awarded through the local school district.

(Programs are being implemented in several correctional institutions in the Windham School District, Huntsville, Texas. APL competency based programs are under consideration and in various stages of implementation in other states.)

California. Department of Education. Adult Education Field Services Unit. Competency Based Adult Education: A Process Model. Sacramento, California: Adult Education Field Services Unit, February 1979.

The CALCOMP (California Competency) Committee, comprised of teachers and administrators and utilizing technical assistance of related 309 projects, has designed a process model for a competency-based adult high school diploma which is currently being implemented in eight demonstration locations. Competency based education is defined, and its major components are summarized and discussed in separate chapters dealing with (1) getting started (major questions regarding goals, authority for changes, time, money, development of community planning group); (2) statement of philosophy; (3) determining competencies and objectives; (4) implementation of program (type and availability of instruction); (5) assessing the learner through the use of criterion-referenced measures; (6) necessary resources (criteria for material selection); (7) program evaluation, (8) staff development (emphasizing personalization); (9) questions and answers (pertinent questions and lists, with addresses, of the demonstration sites, the San Francisco State staff available for staff training, a center for collection and evaluation of materials, six area library repositories and the two locations where the program has been developed.)

(This report should be of great assistance in developing programs of competency-based education.)

Marsh, John J. "GED Testing in State Penal Institutions." Correctional Education, vol. 25, no. 1, (1973), pp. 13-23.

To obtain information on GED testing in State correctional institutions, a 16-item questionnaire was sent to the fifty State Department of Education administrators of the GED program. Forty-nine responses were received. The study appeared to generate more questions than it answered. In general, it was suggested that (1) some State Departments of Education view the GED program in correctional institutions primarily as an administrative responsibility; (2) there is a dearth of research of GED completions and correlation with recidivism, job retention, etc.; (3) research on test failure rates of those individuals taking the tests, success on re-test, and different preparatory programs and success rates thereof is also needed.

(The need for additional research on GED testing is obvious from this survey. Watson's and Stump's article cited in this section is relevant.)

University of Texas at Austin. The Adult Performance Level Competency-Based High School Diploma Program. 4th ed. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, May 1978.

This report describes an alternative high school diploma developed for adults by the University of Texas and patterned after a similar New York program. It is based on APL objectives and curriculum in five general knowledge/content areas in community resources, government and law, health, occupational knowledge and consumer economics. The process of orientation, diagnosis, placement, instruction, testing and assessment are described, as well as the proposed organization of the program under the direction of an adult education specialist, counselor, teacher, assessor, and task force. Students receiving the diploma must complete three major phases: (1) score as an APL 3 on the Content Area Measures; (2) satisfactorily perform the Life Skills Activities under the Generalized Competences portion of the program; and (3) demonstrate the ability to perform adequately in either an occupational/vocational area, in the advanced academic area or in the area of home management/maintenance.

(A good description of the APL alternative high school diploma. The report may be obtained from Elaine Shelton, Coordinator, APL C-BHSDP, Education Annex S-21, University of Texas, Austin 78712.

Watson, M. R., and Stump, E. S. "Predicting the General Education Development Test Score." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 26, no. 1, (1974), pp. 8-10.

This investigation was for the purpose of validating the Stanford Achievement Test--Intermediate II, Otis Intermediate--J, the Cowles Diagnostic Test, and claimed high school level in determining success or failure on the GED. All volunteer inmates were included in the study. The most significant correlation was between the SAT and GED success; the Otis and Cowles Diagnostic Test correlations with GED success were about equal. There was no correlation between success and claimed high school levels. Because the SAT is time consuming and difficult to administer, and the Cowles Diagnostic is short (two hours) and because it is structured as a minature GED test, including all five areas for identification of the individual's weaknesses and strengths, the authors suggest it is the best predictor of GED success.

(Should be of interest to educators involved in administation of the GED program.)

SECTION VII. Postsecondary Education

Literature on postsecondary education for offenders increased with the advent of "NewGate." Citations included here are representative.

Adams, Stuart N., 1973.
Black, L. R., 1975.
Colby, Peter W., and Filter, Gael M., 1976.
Inmate and Ex-Offender Postsecondary Education Programs in California, 1979.
McCabe, M. Patrick, and Driscoll, Brian, 1971.
McFadden, Johnnie, and McFadden, Grace, 1976.
"NewGate Model," 1973.
Seashore, Majorie J., and Haberfeld, Steven, with Irwin, John, and Baker, Keith, 1976.

See also:

Ayers, J. Douglas, 1975, in Section I.
Education Handbook--A Resource and Reference Guide for Education and Leisure Activity Managers and Personnel in the Federal Prison System, June 1978, in Section II.
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, 1979. (By Raymond Bell and others of Lehigh University), in Section I.
PLATO Correctional Project Staff, 1978, in Section V.
Reagen, Michael V., and Stoughton, Donald M., eds., 1976, in Section I.
Roberts, Albert R., 1971, in Section I.
Roberts, Albert R., ed., 1973, in Section I.
University of Southern California, 1978, in Section I.

SECTION VII. Postsecondary Education

Adams, Stuart. "Higher Learning behind Bars." Change, vol. 5, no. 9 (1973), 45-50.

The growth of postsecondary education in prisons is traced, with special descriptions of the programs at San Quentin, Oregon State Prison, and Federal City College--Lorton Project in Washington, D. C. The author suggests that the "catalytic influence" of the San Quentin project led to the elaboration of postsecondary education at Oregon's Upward Bound program and to the NewGate program. The Lorton program utilized students in social action programs, particularly in Project START'S work-study plan.

(An interesting review of the expansion and projection for the future of postsecondary education for offenders.)

Black, L. R. "Alternative Education and Corrections: Some New Dimensions." Yellow Springs, Ohio: Union for Experimenting Colleges and Universities, April 1975. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 107 603.

The Union for Experimenting Colleges and Universities (a consortium of 33 institutions) offers a four-year teacher-preparation program for inmates, ex-offenders, correctional officers, and community members. This program was inititated (a) because of a need to address inequities of traditionally barring ex-offenders from teaching; (b) because ex-offenders often have special qualifications, particularly in relating to students of low socio-economic status; (c) so that pre-service students will learn by teaching inmates who need to develop basic skills. The effectiveness and success of the program are cited, as well as a number of problems which the author states are being resolved. Funding has come from Teacher Corps, U. S. Office of Education "University without Walls" program. UEC and U is current developing a National Institute of Correctional Education to address needs of inmates and staffs.

(An innovative program in the area of teacher training and postsecondary education of prisoners. Unfortunately, recent word from the U. S. Office of Education is that funds for Teacher Corps, Corrections is currently limited to youth advocacy programs.)

Colby, Peter W., and Filter, Gael M. "Packaging Education." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 27, no. 4, (1976), pp. 12-14.

The authors describe a pilot program using programmed instruction in three Illinois correctional institutions. Individualized multimedia self-instructional courses using Self-Instructional Modules

(SIMS) help overcome the problems of time loss due to lockups or isolation and limited classroom space. They allow for the wide diversification of inmates' needs and free instructors' time for individualized attention where needed. The modules also provide budgetary benefits once the initial cost of the system is met. The article mentions a method of evaluation of program results.

(At the time the article was written, the program included political science and sociology. Seven additional social science courses were anticipated.)

Inmate and Ex-Offender Postsecondary Education Programs in California. Sacramento, California: California Postsecondary Education Commission, 1979.

This document contains Volume I of Inmate and Ex-Offender Postsecondary Education Programs in California prepared by the Evaluation and Training Institute at the request of the California Legislature. It also contains comments and recommendations of the Postsecondary Commission in response to the Institute's study. Of the 29 recommendations proposed by the Institute, all but three were endorsed by the Commission. The study contains a description of methodology utilized, an inventory of current prison-based postsecondary programs, a description of inmate population, campus-based programs for ex-offenders, and recommendations for expansion and improvement of programs.

(An interesting evaluation. A more concise statement of the original study (but lacking the responses of the Postsecondary Commission) is a publication by the same title available from Evaluation and Training Institute in Los Angeles, 12401 Wilshire Boulevard, Suite 304, 90025.)

McCabe, M. Patrick, and Driscoll, Brian. "College Admission Opportunities and the Public Offender." Paper presented to the American Association of College Admissions Counselors, September 30, 1971, San Francisco, California. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 061 906.

The NewGate program at the Federal Youth Center, Ashland, Kentucky, was designed to provide intensive college preparation and college-level education for selected inmates, supplemented by supportive counseling and extension beyond release in planning and follow-up. Program accomplishments are cited, including a 7% recidivism rate. Another section of this report describes a 32% response to a questionnaire survey of colleges which revealed that the majority were willing to accept certain types of offenders, though a similar number indicated a criminal record does play a part in admission policy.

Recommendations are made for better communication between correctional institutions and institutions of higher learning.

(This paper should be of interest to correctional educators and to cooperating colleges and universities.)

McFadden, Johnnie, and McFadden, Grace. "Education as a Reform Mechanism." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 27, no. 4, (1976), pp. 2-4.

The authors describe the goals, objectives and operation of a Teacher Corps--Corrections. The article focuses on the programs affiliated with Morgan State College and Roger Williams College, two of the sites for University without Walls programs with which Teacher Corps --Corrections is affiliated. The program uses both "internal" or inmate interns, and "external" interns, some of whom are ex-inmates. The differences between the activities of the "internal" and "external" participants are described, as well as some of the problems involved in program implementation. The authors see the program assisting educational goals of the participants in obtaining teaching credentials or baccalaureate degrees, providing motivation, involvement, cross-cultural communication, and in a variety of other ways.

(Teacher Corps--Corrections funding has been curtailed. However, there are still a number of facilities which use interns from nearby universities.)

"NewGate Model." Hackensack, New Jersey: National Council on Crime and Delinquency, NewGate Resource Center, 1973. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 076 871.

A guide is provided for establishing a college level education program for inmates of correctional institutions based on the NewGate concept. Necessary first steps are evaluation of current facilities, selection of the sponsoring agency, and selection of the student body. Guidelines for student selection deal with application procedure, record search, sentence, testing, academic requirements, selection committees, and contractual agreement. Guidelines for the program within the prison concern academic offerings, student organization, NewGate educational facilties, academic standards, stipends, therapy/counseling, and pre-release screening. Guidelines for the program outside the prison deal with an education release facility (student release), education release facilities (parole and discharge), therapy/counseling, big brother program concept, academic and financial planning, financial aid, employment services, and standards for retention. (ERIC abstract.)

(A helpful publication for institutions considering establishment of NewGate-type programs.)

Seashore, Marjorie J. and Haberfeld, Steven, with Irwin, John, and Baker, Keith. Prisoner Education. Project NewGate and Other College Programs. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1976.

This book combines previous Office of Economic Opportunity and Department of Health, Education and Welfare analyses of five NewGate college education programs for prisoners and three non-NewGate programs. Detailed descriptions of each are included in an appendix. Two major areas of differences in the programs are (1) provision of supportive counseling services and educational involvement outside the classroom, and (2) the existence of outside programs for continuing college after release. NewGate programs in Minnesota, Oregon, New Mexico, and Pennsylvania are cited as offering most extensive supportive services. General topics addressed are (1) evaluation of program progress in terms of supportive framework, personal social space and challenge, (2) evaluation of academic achievement in prison and after release, (3) evaluation of post-prison experience measured by: (a) recidivism, (b) achieving stability, (c) realizing life goals, (d) a composite score of these variables; (4) evaluation of program impact on post prison experience (relationship between program variables and non-recidivism of released participants), (5) cost-benefit analysis ("economic payoff . . . spectacular" for effective programs), (6) description of a model program for which numerous criteria are suggested. Recommendations for establishing objectives, selection of students for inside and outside particpation, choosing the best academic institution, work obligations of released particpants, campus housing, program relationship to the prison and university are cited.

(A valuable, comprehensive volume. Recommendations for future programs are fairly specific.)

SECTION VIII. Special Problems

Few studies have specifically addressed special problems in the education of adult offenders (learning disabilities, mental retardation, and other handicaps; segregated prisoners, and the like). The ones included here should serve as a stimulus for further investigation.

California. Department of Youth Authority, January 1979.
"Diagnostic-Prescriptive Strategies for Students with Learning Disabilities. BAC-UP (Berkeley Adult Contract to Utilize Potential)," n.d.
London City Schools, n.d.
National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U. S. Department of Justice, April 1976.
"PL 94-142 and Education for Incarcerated Youth," Spring 1979.
Pinton, Giorgio A., January 1978.

See also:

Berman, Rita M., 1978, in Section V.
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, 1979. (By Raymond Bell and others of Lehigh University), in Section I.

California. Department of Youth Authority. "Educational Assessment Services for Handicapped Students in Youth Authority Institutional Schools." Sacramento, California: California State Department of Youth Authority, January, 1979. (Mimeographed)

This report is a proposal submitted to the California Department of Education for the establishment of two regional assessment teams to identify and recommend placement of handicapped wards in appropriate special educational programs to be implemented in conformance with PL 94-142. Approximately 28% of Youth Authority wards have been identified through an earlier informal survey as being handicapped; less than 5% of the teaching staff have a background in special education. The impact of the project will be a standardized system for assessment, diagnosis, and prescription of handicapped students; a foundation for development of new programs; a better understanding of staff requirements.

(Should be of interest to administrators and others delegated with responsibility for conformance with PL 94-142.)

"Diagnostic-Prescriptive Strategies for Students with Learning Disabilities. BAC-UP (Berkeley Adult Contract to Utilize Potential)." Berkeley, California: Berkeley Unified School, n.d. (Mimeographed)

This is a summary of a project designed to train staff in the use of materials and strategies for diagnosis and treatment of learning disabled students. The model begins with observation of behaviors; assessment through T.A.B.E, C.T.B.S., the Slingerland Test, W.R.A.T., and portions of the Detroit Test of Learning Aptitudes and the "London procedure"; contracting with the student; progress checks; modification of objectives where necessary. The utilization of resource persons and community agencies was a model component. Particular materials introduced to staff were: Lindamood Auditory Discrimination in Depth Program; Glass Analysis Program for Decoding, E.D.L McGraw-Hill Learning 100 System, Sullivan Programs Math books, Hubbard Real Life Math Skills and Follett's Coping Skills Program. Students remaining in the program over a nine month period made average gains in performance of 1.5 grade levels.

(Marjorie S. Richman, Project Trainer, provided a summary of this project. The finished project document was not available at the time of preparation of this bibliography.)

SECTION VIII. Special Problems

London City Schools. The London Procedure--a Screening Diagnostic and Teaching Guide for Adult Learning Problems. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, Instructional Materials Laboratory, n.d.

The London procedure is a series of individually administered tests specifically designed to provide a screening and diagnosis of visual and auditory functions and perceptions in adults. Fifteen tests are organized into five major areas to be administered by persons trained in the procedure. Individual education plans are then designed. Included in the procedure are suggestions for strategies in teaching based on remediation of special weaknesses; strategies are cross-referenced to an index of instructional materials available in most adult basic education centers.

(This resource, out of print at the time of preparation of this bibliography, may be obtained in the spring of 1980 from Ohio State University, Instructional Materials Laboratory, 1885 Neil Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43210. Additional information may be obtained from Laura Weisel, Director, Learning Disabilities for Adults, London City Schools, 60 South Walnut Street, London, Ohio 43140.)

National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U. S. Department of Justice. "Inventory of Demonstration Projects Linking LD and Delinquency." Appendix D in The Link between Learning Disabilities and Juvenile Delinquency, by Charles A. Murray. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, April 1976. Stock No. 027-000-00479-2.

This inventory presents abstracts describing numerous projects, mostly Law Enforcement Assistance Administration funded, in the area of learning disabilities detection and remediation. The majority of the projects are concerned with juveniles, although a few of them also screen adult offenders.

(This citation is included here solely because it lists projects and persons which correctional educators may wish to contact regarding detection and remediation of learning disabilities.)

"PL 94-142 and Education for Incarcerated Youth." The Directive Teacher, vol. 1, no. 2, (Spring 1979), pp. 7-9.

This article describes the work of the Ohio Youth Commission in providing educational services for handicapped juveniles.

Teachers are implementing the Directive Teaching Instructional Management System (DTIMS), a program of diagnostic-prescriptive individualized learning, utilizing specific performance objectives, criteria referenced assessment tasks and teaching strategies, commercial references providing teaching and practice activities coded to each skill, and management strategies. Teachers receive on-site in-service training.

(This program was described as innovative, and not limited to handicapped application. Further information may be obtained from Dr. William S. Donaldson, 356 Arp Hall, Ohio State University, Columbus 43210. The Directive Teacher is a special education journal; information regarding subscriptions may be obtained from Dr. Donaldson.)

Pinton, Giorgio A. "Bilingual Program in a Community Correctional Center: Sharing Problems, Ideas, Experiences and Resource Information." New Haven, Connecticut: New Haven Community Correctional Center, January, 1978. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 154 626.

The bilingual education of adults in correctional institutions is discussed. The program specifically described is a bilingual/ESL (English as a second language) program for Puerto Rican adults in a Connecticut correctional Center. The study has two sections: (1) the Puerto Rican adult in a penal institution; an explanation of his needs and an attempt to decide what curriculum methods and materials to use and where to find them; and (2) the Puerto Rican adult in a penal institution in Connecticut; an examination of the conflicts and impediments in learning English as a second language. The following topics are discussed within these two main sections: the general education level and some statistics on the Puerto Rican adults in Hartford and Bridgeport; the school district of the Department of Corrections; typology of bilingual students; bilingual/bicultural curriculum as therapy; evaluative procedures; obstacles to learning; and Spolsky's educational factors. It is hoped that the program described may be a force of socialization and a means of acculturation for the persons involved. (ERIC abstract)

(Valuable information on adult competency based materials; the context of the ESL program is based on APL clusters.)

SECTION IX. Incentives

"Incentives" in this section refer to external incentives only, not the equally important intrinsic stimulation and motivation provided by effective staff and curriculum. Although recommendations have often been made for pay or "good time" allowance for program participation, there is very little in the literature specifically addressing these questions in detail.

American Correctional Assocation, 1973.
Cohen, Harold L., 1973.
Milan, Michael A.; Wood, Larry F.; and McKee, John M., 1979.
Minnich, S. D., 1976.

See also:

Carsetti, Janet K., 1975, in Section IV.
Marsh, John J., and Adams, Stuart N., 1976, in Section I.
McCollum, Sylvia G., 1973, in Section I.
McKee, John M., 1975, in Section V.
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, 1979. (By Raymond Bell and others of Lehigh University), in Section I.
"NewGate Model," 1973, in Section VII.
Reagen, Michael V., and Stoughton, Donald M., 1976, in Section I.
Roberts, Albert R., 1971, in Section I.
Roberts, Albert R., ed., 1973, in Section I.
Seashore, Majorie J., and Haberfeld, Steven, with Irwin, John, and Baker, Keith, 1976, in Section VII.

SECTION IX. Incentives

American Correctional Association. The Mutual Agreement Program. A Planned Change in Correctional Service Delivery. Resource Document #3, Parole Corrections Project. College Park, Maryland: American Correctional Association, 1973.

The focus of this document is on suggested guidelines for mutual agreement programming in adult institutional and parole systems. Discussed are the theoretical aspects of planned change and strategy, which in the development of the MAP model included research, workshop discussions, and contacts with the various states by the American Correctional Association's project staff. Problems and resistance to change, the negotiation process preceding the selection of project sites, and the development of criteria for inmate participation are described in general. Three program variations are discussed in detail--Wisconsin, Arizona, and California.

(This description of mutual agreement programming is included in the bibliography inasmuch as it has been cited as a motivation for education program participation.)

Cohen, Harold L. "Motivationally oriented designs for an Ecology of Learning." In Readings in Prison Education, pp. 142-54. Edited by A. R. Roberts. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1973.

The author discusses the design of environments which sustain learning and describes a special project at the National Training School for Boys, Washington, D. C., which began in 1966 and employed behavior modification techniques. A token economy was in operation in which there was a payoff in points, exchangeable for money, for completion of instruction. Reinforcement systems included not only points, but recognition, quality subject matter and personal space; students were allowed to take instructional materials to their rooms. Success of the program showed up in increased achievement (Standard Achievement Test), reading (Gates Reading Survey) and improved IQ scores (Revised Beta IQ).

(Inasmuch as there is some evidence of the effectiveness of token reinforcement systems for adults also, this program may be of interest to some readers.)

Milan, Michael A., Wood, Larry F., and McKee, John M. "Motivating Academic Achievement in a Cellblock Token Economy: An Elaboration of the Premack Principle." Offender Rehabilitation, vol. 3, no. 1, (1979), pp. 349-61.

"In this study an expanded withdrawal design was used to explore the effect of a variation of the chaining procedure upon inmates' participation and performance in a remedial education program. In accord with the Premack Principle, high probability activity (participation in a cellblock token economy) was made contingent upon a low probability activity (participation and achievement in a remedial education program). Both participation and achievement in the education program increased dramatically, with most cellblock residents mastering material which represented an average of 10 or more hours of leisure-time study each week." (Authors' abstract)

(Although the back-up reinforcers of extra privileges earned while the token economy was in effect did produce increased education program participation, upon discontinuance of the token economy participation dropped to the virtually nonexistent level which had been true prior to its initiation.)

Minnich, S. D. The Planned Implementation of Mutual Agreement Programming in a Correctional System, Resource Document #9. College Park, Maryland: American Correctional Association, Parole-Corrections Project, February, 1976. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 122 057.

The Mutual Agreement Programming (MAP) process, as currently used in corrections, provides for the use of a legally binding contract between the inmate and the Paroling Authority. The contract outlines future inmate performance in the areas of skill training, education, institutional behavior, treatment, and work assignment or employment. It also establishes a definite parole date contingent upon successful completion of the contract terms by the inmate. The concept relies on the philosophical base that the Paroling Authority can relate positive performance in these goal areas as an indication of parole readiness. The manual is intended to provide a practical guide to correctional agencies contemplating using the MAP process. The overall MAP process is described in detail from orientation, through contract negotation, and up to parole follow-up. Descriptions of role changes in Parole Boards, Corrections, and inmates are contained as well as the role of the MAP Coordinator. The manual also provides a description of educational voucher services for MAP inmates. Correctional agencies will find useful appendices containing examples of the MAP model, MAP forms, and MAP/Voucher policy. (ERIC abstract)

(Of value to those decision-makers contemplating this type of incentive for inmate participation in education programs.)

SECTION X. Evaluation; Research

The need for research and evaluation is an oft-cited weakness in correctional education. The following are but a few samples of the scope of materials in this area.

Bennett, Lawrence, A., 1975.
Buttram, Joan L., and Dusewicz, Russell A., 1977.
California. Department of Corrections, 1977.
Glaser, Daniel, 1973.
Lee, Allen, 1975.
Neil, Thomas C., and Harvey, Jasper William, 1976.
System Development Corporation, December 1978.
System Development Corporation, 1977.

See also:

Comptroller General of the United States, February 6, 1979.
Education Handbook--A Resource and Reference Guide for Education and Leisure Activity Managers and Personnel in the Federal Prison System, June 1978, in Section II.
McKee, John M., 1967, in Section V.
Marsh, John, and Adams, Stuart N., 1976, in Section I.
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U. S. Department of Justice, 1979. (By Raymond Bell and others of Lehigh University), in Section I.
Reagen, Michael V. and Stoughton, Donald M., 1976, in Section I.
Roberts, Albert A., ed., 1973, in Section I.
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975, in Section I.
Ryan, T. A., ed., 1975, in Section V.
Ryan, T. A.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C.; Oresic, Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Wells, H. Gary, 1975, in Section I.
Ryan, T. A.; Clark, Dale W.; Hatrak, Robert S.; Hinders, Dean; Keeney, J. C. Verl Oresic, Joseph; Orrell, James B.; Sessions, Arnold R.; Streed, James L.; Wells, H. Gary, in Section V.
Seashore, Marjorie J., and Haberfeld, Steven, with Irwin, John, and Baker, Keith, 1976, in Section VII.

SECTION X. Evaluation; Research

Bennett, Lawrence A. "Use of Research to Improve Instruction." In Education for Adults in Correctional Institutions, Volume II, pp. 261-78. Edited by T. A. Ryan. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975.

The author discusses research leading to presently established learning theories, summarizing that although " . . . there is no coherent body of knowledge related directly to (adult basic education in corrections) . . . the search for relevant findings must continue to be wide-ranging, making use of information from elementary and adult education, from general learning theory, from psychology, management training and political sociology." Specific research on the relationship between learning and age, delinquency, intelligence, socioeconomic and ethnic background, and the expectation of failure are cited. Research on skill training, tutors and teacher aides and behavior modification techniques has demonstrated the effectiveness of these strategies. Research as a "self corrective" tool or method calls for clearly stated objectives, comparison methods, and pre- and post-treatment measurement.

(The cited research makes this article of interest. Volume II is available through ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 123 478.

Buttram, Joan L and Dusewicz, Russell A. Effectiveness of Educational Programs in State Correctional Institutions: A Follow-up Study of Ex-offenders, Final Report. Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, September 30, 1977. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 159 216.

A follow-up of 133 ex-offenders five to six months after release was structured to determine the effect of educational program participation versus non-participation. Participants in educational programs were classified as follows: adult basic education or general educational development (45 persons); vocational education (35); postsecondary education (13); no enrollment (35); and unclassified (5 persons). Among the variables studied were: employment status, employment adjustment, general social adjustment, and absconding/recidivism. Ex-offenders enrolled in postsecondary education programs were found to have violated parole and/or been arrested significantly fewer times than were those in the no-enrollment control group. Except for this finding, no overall consistent pattern of significant differences were observed among any of the groups. Possible reasons for nonsignificant results of program participation are cited and a number of recommendations for program improvement are included. (Adapted from ERIC abstract.)

(Post-release data can be obtained for research purposes.)

California. Department of Corrections. Compensatory Education--Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title I, Impact on Illiteracy. Sacramento, California: California Department of Corrections, 1977.

Information on the inmates, staff and institutions utilizing Title I funding in the California Department of Corrections is given. The delivery system utilizes a diagnostic-prescriptive-evaluation process with various media and materials in programming, including an instructional television system in one institution. Pre- and post-testing at two of the institutions revealed approximate four month gains for one month instruction; there was a one month for one month gain in the third facility. A number of problems are cited, including short duration of stay of inmates, disciplinary actions, court appearances, visitations and instructional "lock-down" situations. Recommendations for program improvements are offered. Appendices include (1) assessment instruments, (2) a description of instructional materials, and (3) monitoring forms.

(Another example of "what works"--remedial and enrichment programs made possible through special funding.)

Glaser, Daniel. "The Effectiveness of Correctional Education." In Readings in Prison Education, pp. 351-63. Edited by A. R. Roberts. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1973.

Studies of the effectiveness of prison treatment programs are contradictory, although there is some evidence of favorable impact. Four needs for increasing effectiveness are discussed. (1) broadening the challenge to students of low socioeconomic status through individualized instruction; (2) changing social relationships through individualized attention of instructors or inmate/tutors; (3) keeping correctional education "honest" by adhering to standards of performance; (4) compiling follow-up data on the utilization of prison education in post-release life, and designing experimental research.

Lee, Allen. "Evaluation of Adult Basic Education in Correctional Institutions." In Education for Adults in Correctional Institutions, Volume II, pp. 609-21. Edited by T. A. Ryan. Honolulu, Hawaii: University of Hawaii, 1975.

A Program Planning and Budgeting System (PPBS) approach for systematic education planning and evaluation framework is described, as well as recommended procedures for evaluation through self-analysis, use of visiting team, and report and recommendations by a third party. Criteria for areas to be analyzed are suggested, together with a diagrammatic overview of major activities and sequence.

(This appears to be a good system for education program evaluation.)

Neil, Thomas C., and Harvey, Jasper William. "School Attendance and Discipline." Journal of Correctional Education, vol. 28, no. 1, (1976), pp. 10-11.

The authors describe a study at Wayne Correctional Institution in Georgia to determine the effect of inmate participation in academic and vocational classes on institutional behavior, as indicated by disciplinary reports. A group of 80 participants in the education program were randomly selected and compared to a randomly selected group of 40 inmates who were non-participants. In the ten week observation period the educational group had four disciplinary reports and the control group 15.

(Documents residual benefits of educational programs to the institution.)

System Development Corporation. Handbook for Evaluation of Title I Programs in State Institutions for Neglected or Delinquent Youth. Santa Monica, California: System Development Corporation, December 1978.

This evaluation system addresses questions of whether Title I supplemental instruction combined with regular education is more effective than the latter alone, the performance levels of Title I students, and whether performance improves over time. Two models for evaluation are described. The systematic allocation model compares performance of Title I students (systematically allocated to program as "neediest") with that of dissimilar students receiving only regular academic instruction. Allocation is accomplished by use of norm or domain-referenced tests; post-testing may

may be norm or domain-referenced. The criterion model requires pre-establishment of performance criteria and the use of domain-referenced tests in pre- and post-testing. It can be used where comparison groups are not available (i.e., where allocation of students as in the systematic model is not feasible). Implementation of the two models are described in depth. Appendices include instructions on allocation of students in the systematic model, forms and instructions for the institution, and forms and instructions for the State Applicant Agency. Resources for domain-referenced and criterion-referenced tests are listed.

(This valuable handbook includes technical detail of interest to evaluators of programs.)

________. Compensatory Education and Confined Youth: A National Evaluation of Title I Programs in State Institutions for Neglected or Delinquent Youth. Volume I. Santa Monica, California: System Development Corporation, 1977.

Objectives of Phase I evaluation were to collect data about Title I programs in adult and juvenile correctional facilities and juvenile facilities for the neglected. This was accomplished by interviews and site visits to 100 randomly selected institutions. A brief overview precedes detailed descriptions of analyses in chapters on services, settings, management, funding, and opinions regarding success. Some of the findings are: About 40% of the sample reported they served 50% or fewer eligible residents--adult facilities reporting the lowest proportion. Students reported a generally high level of interest; there was good student/teacher rapport. Emphasis was placed on individualization of instruction and assessment of student progress. Variation in programs was related to custody or treatment orientation of institutions. Administrators expressed "considerable dissatisfaction about lack of clarity" of federal guidelines, monitoring and evaluation. Adult institutions received about half the amount of State funding per student that delinquent facilities received. Major allocations were to basic skill areas--70% went for personnel. Opinions regarding success of the programs were generally positive.

(A very comprehensive, detailed study, to be followed by Phase II evaluation of program impact on basic reading and math skills and self-concept, and a third study of post-release experiences of ex-offenders. The final drafts of these studies had not been approved for release at the time of preparation of this bibliography.)

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